DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 337 530 UD 028 288

TITLE	Success Stories: A Case Study of Compensatory Education in Elementary Schools. Final Program Evaluation Report.
INSTITUTION	Texas Education Agency, Austin.
REPORT NO	GEO-543-02
PUB DATE	90
NOTE	108p.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Academic Achievement; Case Studies; *Compensatory Education; *Educationally Disadvantaged; Elementary Education; Federal Programs; Longitudinal Studies; *Minority Groups; Models; Program Effectiveness; Program Evaluation; State Programs; State Surveys; Urban Schools
IDENTIFIERS	*Texas

ABSTRACT

A statewide evaluation of compensatory education programs was initiated during the 1985-86 school year to identify effective compensatory education practices. This final report summarizes study background, strategies, and findings through Phase III (1988-89) of the study. Recommendations are made for effective compensatory education programs in elementary schools. An estimated 675,000 students were served by compensatory education programs in Texas in the 1986-87 school year. This study deviates from the traditional approach of focusing on federally-funded programs, as it defines compensatory education more broadly, considering all students who are not performing satisfactorily regardless of program funding. Bilingual and English-as-a-Second-Language programs are not included. Collected data identify above-average programs. A case study approach to seven schools allows preparation of a typology of effective elementary education programs, which is presented in chart form. In 1986-87, over 50% of the students at these schools were minority students, and at all but one of the schools, a majority of students was eligible for free and reduced-price lunches. Four illustrations and 15 tables of statistical data are included. A 49-item list of references is also included. Four appendices provide supplemental information and summaries of findings from Phase I, Phase II, and Phase III of the 3-year evaluation. (SLD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

UD

ED337530

FINAL PROGRAM EVALUATION REPORT
COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

Success Stories:
A Case Study of Compensatory Education in Elementary Schools

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

TEXAS EDUCATION AGENCY
AUSTIN, TEXAS
1990

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Linda Keys
Texas Ed Agcy
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

UD #028 298

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

(State Board for Vocational Education)

MONTE HASIE, Lubbock
Chairman of the State Board of Education
District 15

CAROLYN HONEA CRAWFORD, Beaumont
Vice Chairman of the State Board of Education
District 7

MARY HELEN BERLANGA, Corpus Christi
Secretary of the State Board of Education
District 2

Board Members

BOB AIKIN, Commerce
District 9

RAYMOND A. ALEXANDER, Houston
District 4

EMMETT J. CONRAD, Dallas
District 13

ROBERT D. CUMMINGS, Houston
District 6

WILL D. DAVIS, Austin
District 10

WILLIAM L. HUDSON, Wichita Falls
District 14

GERALDINE MILLER, Dallas
District 12

JANE NELSON, Lewisville
District 11

RENE NUÑEZ, El Paso
District 1

MARY KNOTTS PERKINS, Lufkin
District 8

JOHN H. SHIELDS, San Antonio
District 5

ESTEBAN SOSA, San Antonio
District 3

W.N. KIRBY, Commissioner of Education
(Executive Officer of the State Board of Education)

Committees
of the
State Board of Education

PERMANENT SCHOOL FUND

ESTEBAN SOSA, Chairman
BOB AIKIN
MONTE HASIE
WILLIAM L. HUDSON
GERALDINE MILLER
RENE NUÑEZ

SCHOOL FINANCE

WILL D. DAVIS, Chairman
BOB AIKIN
ROBERT D. CUMMINGS
WILLIAM L. HUDSON
ESTEBAN SOSA

PERSONNEL

CAROLYN HONEA CRAWFORD, Chairman
EMMETT J. CONRAD
RENE NUÑEZ
JOHN H. SHIELDS

LONG-RANGE PLANNING

EMMETT J. CONRAD, Chairman
ROBERT D. CUMMINGS
WILL D. DAVIS
JANE NELSON
MARY KNOTTS PERKINS
JOHN H. SHIELDS

STUDENTS

GERALDINE MILLER, Chairman
RAYMOND A. ALEXANDER
MARY HELEN BERLANGA
MONTE HASIE
JANE NELSON
MARY KNOTTS PERKINS

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

Introduction 1

  Background 1
  Definitions 2
  Current Compensatory Programs 3
    Federal Compensatory Programs 3
    State Compensatory Programs 4

CHAPTER II

A Selective Review of the Literature On Effective Program Practices 7

CHAPTER III

Need for the Study 11

CHAPTER IV

Evaluation Strategy 13

CHAPTER V

Program Selection 17

CHAPTER VI

Findings 21

  Part I—Campus Data 21
    Campus and Program Enrollment and Demographics 22
    Relationship of the Compensatory Program to the Total Campus 24
    Student Performance 26
      TEAMS Results 26
      Achievement Scores 31
    Amount of Teacher Time Spent in Direct Compensatory Instruction 34
    Instructional Approaches and Arrangements 35

  Part II—Qualitative Data 37
    Philosophy and Goals of the Program 37
    Program Organization 40

Coordination Between the Regular Program and the Compensatory Education Program . 43
Roles of the Principal and Program Coordinator 44
Program Policies 46
Student Identification 47
Exiting Students from the Program 47
Promotion and Retention 48
Teacher Qualifications and Characteristics 49
Curriculum and Instruction 50
Instructional Approaches 50
Essential Element Mastery 53
Student Assessment 56
Tutorials 57
Instructional Assistants 60
Computers and Technology 61
Parental Involvement 63
Non-Instructional Support 65
Staff Development 68
Program Evaluation 70
Resources 71

CHAPTER VII

Toward A Typology of Effective Compensatory Education Programs In Elementary Schools 73
Summary 73
Verification of Phase II Findings 79
Recommendations 80

References 81

Appendices 85
A. Summary of Findings From Phase II 86
B. Summary All Programs—First and Fifth Grade Reading Achievement Test Scores and TEAMS Scores 90
C. Instructional Leadership System 92
D. Participating Districts' Reactions to the Report 94

Illustrations

I Geographic Location of School Districts 19
II Summary All Programs—Third Grade Reading Achievement Test Scores and TEAMS Scores 33
III Instructional Approaches 36
IV Typology of Effective Elementary Compensatory Education Practices 76

List of Tables

1. Campus Characteristics, 1988-89 22

2. Retention Rates (Percent Retained), 1987-88 23

3. Compensatory Education Enrollment Relative to Total Campus Enrollment (Percentage), 1988-89 24

4. Compensatory Program Minority Enrollment Relative to Total Campus Minority Enrollment (Percentage), 1988-89 25

5. Compensatory Student Enrollment in the Free/Reduced Price Lunch Program 25

6. First Grade TEAMS Mastery (Percentage), 1988-89 27

7. TEAMS Reading Subtest Mastery—Grades One and Three (Percentage) 27

8. TEAMS Mathematics Subtest Mastery—Grades One and Three (Percentage) 28

9. TEAMS Writing Subtest Mastery—Grades One and Three (Percentage) 29

10. TEAMS Reading Subtest Mastery—Grades Three and Five (Percentage) 30

11. TEAMS Mathematics Subtest Mastery—Grades Three and Five (Percentage) 30

12. TEAMS Writing Subtest Mastery—Grades Three and Five (Percentage) 31

13. Achievement Test Scores, 1988-89 (Normal Curve Equivalents) 32

14. Percent Time Spent in Direct Compensatory Education Instruction, Compensatory Education Teachers 34

15. Percent Time Spent in Direct Compensatory Education Instruction, Total Campus 35

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND

The Texas Education Agency (Agency) initiated a statewide evaluation of compensatory education programs during the 1985-86 school year. The purpose of this three-phase study was to identify **effective compensatory education practices.** The goals of the first phase of the study (1985-86) were to identify the most valid and accessible data sources, to refine the evaluation questions, and to develop program descriptions. Results of Phase I were summarized in an internal document that described the compensatory programs in a sample of districts. The goal of Phase II (1986-87) was to link student performance to program implementation. Findings from Phase II of the study, which were presented to the State Board of Education in July 1988, are summarized in Appendix A. The major findings of Phase II are as follows:

- Eligibility for free/reduced price lunch is only marginally related to service in a compensatory program and is not related to success.
- Exit rates are almost constant at 30 percent per year. However, there is no concomitant decline in the number of students served over time, indicating that selection measures are often keyed to constant funding levels for compensatory education programs. The method of funding, student selection, and exit standards for compensatory programs need to be reconsidered.
- The overall impact of compensatory programs as measured by changes in the distributions of both normative and criterion-based test scores is positive but quite small.
- In general, retention is not a successful practice. Moreover, compensatory students are retained at a higher rate than other students.
- On-level instruction is critical for success regardless of students' initial performance levels. Although not specifically examined, higher expectations for student performance which often accompany on-level instruction for compensatory students may also positively effect success.
- Of all the teacher variables examined, only frequent coordination between the regular and compensatory teacher is positively related to success.
- Parental involvement is positively related to success.

Phase III of the study (1988-89) identified quality elementary compensatory education programs on the basis of student test performance, promotion rates, and exit rates from the compensatory program that exceeded state averages. These programs were selected based upon data collected in Phase II combined with information obtained from staff in the school districts asked to participate in this case study. This report will present the Phase III findings. The goal of Phase III was to validate the findings from Phase II and to provide an in-depth description of effective compensatory education program practices. A companion report, Phase III of a study to identify effective bilingual/ESL program practices, is available from the Agency (TEA Publication No. GEO 543 01).

DEFINITIONS

Historically, compensatory education programs have varied greatly among and within school districts. These variations can be attributed to differences in state and federal funding restrictions; the use of program models compatible with the individual district's resources and philosophy; and the type of services required to meet local needs. Compensatory programs are generally considered to be long-term, are typically multi-year, and are designed to help students progress through an initial deficit to a functional level equivalent to their peers. Examples include most Chapter 1 programs, bilingual education programs, and certain secondary level courses which are usually multi-year in nature (Correlated Language Arts I, II, etc.). For purposes of the study, compensatory education was defined as follows:

> Compensatory education is defined as instruction provided to students who are not performing satisfactorily in academic courses, on basic skills assessment instruments,(e.g. TEAMS), and on other standardized achievement tests. Compensatory education refers to ALL programs regardless of funding source. These programs may include, but are not limited to, federally funded programs such as Chapter 1 Regular or Migrant, Chapter 2, state funded compensatory programs, and/or locally funded compensatory programs. For the purpose of this study, compensatory programs will not include bilingual, English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL), or special education programs.

Although not critical to this study, compensatory programs may be further differentiated by funding source. Fiscal support is provided through federal Chapter 1, Chapter 2, and Title VII funding, state compensatory and bilingual education allotments, and local funding. In some cases, the only distinction among compensatory programs is the restriction on the use of funds supporting the programs. Some programs, such as Chapter 1, are subject to a number of restrictions, but others, such as those funded by Chapter 2 and state compensatory resources, are flexible enough to serve a wide variety of students using many instructional approaches. For example, standards for identifying students to be served with state compensatory funds include TEAMS failures, students with low achievement test scores, behavior problems, high absentee rates, failing grades, teacher referrals, adjudicated youth, retentions, and students identified as dyslexic. In some districts, this represents a majority of the students enrolled.

CURRENT COMPENSATORY PROGRAMS

The following historical descriptions of federal and state compensatory programs provide background information for this report.

FEDERAL COMPENSATORY PROGRAMS

Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Act (ESEA) of 1965 provided funds to local education agencies for supplemental programs designed to meet the needs of educationally deprived children from low income areas. Campuses in Texas qualified to receive funds under Title I by a measure of the socioeconomic conditions within the district. However, the district selection criteria were not overly restrictive, and as a result, nearly 90 percent of all districts were eligible to receive Title I funds. Any underachieving student who attended school in a Title I district could receive compensatory education services, regardless of their family's socioeconomic status. In 1965, Texas expended approximately $78 million in Title I funds to serve 390,000 students. In 1988-89, this figure exceeded $250 million.

With each reauthorization of the ESEA during the 1970's, Congress added increasingly specific requirements for Title I expenditures. Some of the program requirements adopted during this time included a comprehensive assessment of each Title I student's needs, the concentration of Title I services to a limited number of students, and the stipulation that Title I instruction supplement, but not replace, the student's regular school program. During this decade, Congress required increased parental involvement in Title I programs through parent advisory councils (PACs) and increased from 1 percent to 1.5 percent the allowable portion of Title I funds set aside for state administration and compliance monitoring.

In 1981, Title I was replaced by Chapter 1 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA). This statute reduced or eliminated many of the parental involvement requirements included in Title I, reduced the allowable portion of funds for state administration to 1 percent, and relaxed state monitoring requirements.

Currently, Chapter 1 provides funds for supplemental instruction and for support services such as counseling, medical screening, and pupil transportation. Districts are prohibited from supplanting local or state funds with federal funds except for schoolwide projects where state, local, and federal funds can be combined. Schoolwide projects can be implemented on campuses with 75 percent or higher low income students. That is, districts may not use Chapter 1 funds to support the programs that would be provided through state or local resources in the absence of a federally funded program. District and student eligibility requirements for Chapter 1 services remain essentially the same. For the 1987-88 school year, 381,488 Texas students were reported to have received supplemental Chapter 1 services.

Chapter 2 of the ECIA provides funds for basic skills development, educational improvement, and support services. These funds also support special projects in 28 program areas previously administered by separate programs. Chapter 2 allocations are based on the percentage of students in the district whose education imposes a higher-than-average cost per student. These include students from low-income families, economically depressed rural or urban areas, and sparsely populated areas. For the 1988-89 school year, Texas received approximately $33 million in Chapter 2 funds.

STATE COMPENSATORY PROGRAMS

State-funded compensatory education began with the passage of House Bill 1126 in 1975. This bill provided a compensatory allotment entitled, "Support for Educationally Disadvantaged Pupils." To be eligible for state compensatory funds, a district also had to receive federal funds under Title I of ESEA. Early in the program, state funds were closely tied to federal funds in a number of respects. Beginning with the 1976-77 school year, the law required school districts to submit a coordinated plan to the Agency regarding the use of federal and state compensatory funds. Following the federal model, state funds were defined as supplements to other state and local funds, and were required to be spent on a targeted population. Specifically, these funds were to be used to address the needs of a limited number of students who, by district standard, were identified as being educationally disadvantaged. State compensatory funds could be used to support programs in the curriculum areas of reading, math, and language development as well as to support bilingual/multicultural development. Districts were required to apply for state compensatory funds through a consolidated application process that included federal Title I and Title I-Migrant funding. Finally, the accountability measures prescribed for state funded programs were the same as those required for federal compensatory programs.

In 1977, the Texas Legislature repealed the statutory linkage between state and federal compensatory funds, however, state compensatory funds were still allocated based on the number of Title I students in a district. The requirement that districts submit a coordinated plan for the use of state and federal compensatory funds was repealed. State administrative rules were changed to allow greater district discretion in the use of state compensatory funds. State funds were to be applied toward the district's total effort to provide compensatory education. In addition, the funding was no longer required to be concentrated on a limited number of students, although students with the greatest needs were to be given first consideration

The State Board of Education continued the trend toward greater district flexibility with a major revision of the rules in 1978. At that time, the Board moved toward student-centered service delivery. The broad goal of the compensatory program was to bring the student to a functional level in basic skills appropriate for his or her age group. The parameters called for program priorities in the areas of preschool education, communication skills, mathematics, and bilingual/multicultural education. Support services would be provided for students during the transition from a compensatory program to a regular program.

During the period between 1979 and 1983, there were several important legislative changes to the state compensatory program. First, the allotment was raised to $44 per student and was based upon the number of students in the district who were enrolled in the federal free and reduced price lunch program. Furthermore, the allotment was increased to $50 per student for 1982 and following years. Other legislative action required that student performance data be used in the design and implementation of compensatory services.

During this same period, State Board of Education rules were revised to reflect the elimination of ties to federal compensatory funds. For example, the application requirement was deleted and eventually replaced by the requirement that districts file a statement of intent. Allowable expenditures were expanded to include instructionally related activities; however, noninstructional and administrative expenditures were prohibited, and construction and equipment expenditures were limited.

The state compensatory program changed dramatically with the enactment of House Bill 72 in 1984. The compensatory allotment was increased to a state average of $300 per student for the 1984-85 school year and $320 per student for the 1985-86 and following school years. This represented an increase in the total appropriations for compensatory education from approximately $51.6 million in 1983-84 to approximately $319 million in 1984-85. The basis for distributing these funds continued to be the number of students in the district enrolled in the federal free and reduced price lunch program.

House Bill 72 provided funds that could be used to serve underachieving students. A legislative interpretation, which was distributed to all school districts prior to final passage of the bill, emphasized that districts were to retain a great deal of discretionary authority over the allotment. Tutorial, prekindergarten, and basic academic instruction programs were to receive priority consideration. Furthermore, the funds were to be spent directly for instructional costs with the exception that a maximum of 35 percent of the allotment could finance administrative expenditures. However, in 1985, the State Board of Education reduced the allowable administrative expenditures to 15 percent of the total allotment.

CHAPTER II

A SELECTIVE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON EFFECTIVE PROGRAM PRACTICES

Over the past 20 or more years, considerable effort has been directed toward identifying effective educational practices. Recently, the effective schools literature has become popular and many campuses have adopted the effective schools model. This model challenged the assumption that differences among schools have little effect on achievement and identified the characteristics of effective schools, including (U.S. Department of Education, 1986A:45):

- vigorous instructional leadership
- a principal who makes clear, consistent, and fair decisions
- an emphasis on discipline and a safe and orderly climate
- instructional practices that focus on basic skills and academic achievement
- collegiality among teachers in support of student achievement
- teachers with high expectations that all their students can and will learn, and
- frequent review of student progress.

It may, however, be inappropriate to apply the effective schools research to compensatory education programs since the effective practices were derived from research of schools in general; that is, the research was not specific to compensatory education programs. For example, in Portland, Oregon a recent study conducted in 48 elementary schools found that three variables often identified as positively related to student achievement in effective schools research were not positively related to student performance in compensatory education programs. This finding led the authors to caution against generalizing the results found in one setting to a different type of setting (Leitner and Yagi, 1989).

Studies of the overall effect of Chapter 1 programs have been limited by this same difficulty. Because of the local discretion in the design of Chapter 1 programs, services differ from one project to the next. As noted in the National Assessment of Chapter 1 (U.S. Department of Education, 1987:4) "Services may be provided in some grades and not others, they may last 20 minutes or a few hours a day, they may take place in the student's regular classroom or another setting, teachers or aides may deliver them, and they may use the same materials as the regular instructional program or different materials." As a result, the research has identified a number of variables that have been found to correlate with achievement, but there is little understanding of how those conditions can be replicated within the context of a given school or program.

Given these limitations, general conclusions regarding the impact of Chapter 1 programs can be summarized as follows (Anderson and Stonehill, 1986:15):

- The programs have a positive, though small, effect on the achievement of disadvantaged students.
- The results of most studies are overstated because of the upward biases inherent in several standard statistical procedures.
- The gains appear to be greater in earlier years, and the evidence is fairly strong that early gains are not sustained.
- No significant association exists between dollars spent and achievement gains.
- No instructional approach or program characteristics were consistently found to be effective.

While these general findings may not provide practitioners with specific strategies to improve services for low-performing students, a number of the studies have identified practices that appear to be associated with increased student achievement. For example, five practices identified in the National Assessment of Chapter 1 (U.S. Department of Education, 1987), included (1) very small instructional groups, (2) increased instructional time, (3) well-qualified instructors, (4) direct instruction, and (5) lessons and materials involving higher order thinking skills.

One strategy used to identify practices that contribute to increased student achievement has been to study a range of both effective and ineffective projects to determine how they differ. For example, the Instructional Dimensions Study developed an instructional process model that focused on student motivation, opportunity to learn in the classroom, degree of individualization in the program, the nature of instructional events, and the characteristics of project teachers. Based upon observations in 400 first and third grade classrooms in 14 school districts, this study yielded three findings. First, individualized instruction did not make a difference in student achievement; students performed about the same whether they were taught individually or in groups. Second, pull-out programs were more effective in some schools and in-class programs were more effective in others. The third finding was that "opportunity to learn" was the only factor consistently associated with student achievement. This factor included features such as amount of instructional time and size of the instructional groups (U.S. Department of Education, 1986B).

The Sustaining Effects Study also found a relationship between instructional time and achievement, but the relationship did not appear in every grade and subject examined (Wang, 1981). Factors that did appear to make a difference included the teacher's years of experience, the frequency with which students received feedback on their performance, and the lack of disruption in the classroom. The study concluded that "the amount of compensatory instruction would not **by itself** close the achievement gap between compensatory students and their nondisadvantaged peers and that more information was needed about the components of compensatory instruction to know which are most important to achieve" (U.S. Department of Education, 1986B:79-80).

Hepler, et al. (1987), conducted a case study in 20 school districts to document the facets of each program that contributed most directly to successfully teaching extremely disadvantaged children. This study concluded that:

- A wide variety of school systems are successfully serving highly disadvantaged children, regardless of the system's size, location, or economic composition.
- Students who begin school with a few skills can still benefit significantly from compensatory education, but only if the programs are of exceptionally high quality.
- Highly disadvantaged students appear to need innovative and intensive services. Even when using instructional techniques of proven effectiveness, teachers and principals must show additional flexibility and persistence. The teachers in this study used a variety of materials and methods to teach each concept and continued trying different techniques until a student mastered an objective.
- The programs, as a set, appeared to be staffed by teachers, administrators, and principals who held key beliefs in common. Teachers and administrators:
  - believed that every child can and must learn and carried that belief into practice;
  - were impatient in wanting results and wanting them now rather than later;
  - were willing to work, and keep working until their program was successful; and
  - accepted the responsibility for educating disadvantaged students, and saw to it that quality instruction permeated the student's entire education.

Rowan and Guthrie (1987:5) support the "micro" approach to the evaluation of compensatory programs in their study of 24 schools and reported that "Researchers assume that all students who participate in federal programs receive comparable instructional treatments and thus that evaluations of program effectiveness can be accomplished by inspecting highly aggregated data on instructional outcomes." Contrary to the macro approach to program evaluation, instructional treatments vary considerably. Given this, the purpose of the Rowan and Guthrie study was to examine the processes that lead to instructional outcomes and to describe the extent of variation in quality of instruction in a variety of settings. They concluded that the one uniform characteristic of all the Chapter 1 projects in the study was that all of them offered instruction in small groups. They observed that the Chapter 1 programs were implemented with very site-specific characteristics and recommended that researchers, policy makers, and practitioners consider the following statements when thinking about the program.

- Improvement will occur on a site-by-site basis. That is, it is unlikely that sweeping reforms can affect uniform changes in local instructional programs.
- The adoption of a particular service delivery model (e.g. pullout or in-class) is not the major consideration in thinking about how to improve Chapter 1 instruction.
- Chapter 1 funds might be better used to purchase add-on services that increase the amount of time students spend in basic skills instruction.
- The curriculum linkage between Chapter 1 and regular instruction must be carefully addressed. The implementation of "supportive" or "alternative" lesson assignments should be done only after a careful assessment of whether or not students' needs can be met by the regular curriculum.
- Chapter 1 projects at all levels should expose students to higher order thinking skills.

Two reviews of effective programs and practices by Slavin and Madden are the basis for the following summary of findings (Slavin and Madden, 1987; Madden and Slavin, 1987). Their reviews were based on programs validated by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP), a U.S. Department of Education panel which reviewed evaluations of programs originally supported by federal funds. They characterize effective classroom programs in the following way: **Consistently effective classroom programs accommodate instruction to individual needs while maximizing direct instruction, and they frequently assess student progress through a structured hierarchy of skills.**

They found that the most successful classroom models were continuous-progress programs in which students are taught in skill-level groups and the students proceed through a hierarchical set of skills and cooperative learning programs in which they also receive instruction at their appropriate levels, but practice skills in mixed-ability learning teams. Examination of effective pull-out programs provided further support for these conclusions. The most successful models, tutoring and computer assisted instruction, completely adapt instruction to the students' unique needs and provide plentiful direct instruction appropriate to students' level of readiness.

They conclude their review by recommending that "A very small proportion of the enormous Chapter 1 budget . . . could fund development of promising models, evaluation and component analyses of such models, and ultimately evaluation of the models in new sites with multiple measures (not only standardized tests), with random assignment of programs to schools. In this way, we could finally achieve the ambitious goals of Chapter 1 to make a meaningful difference in the life chances of disadvantaged students." (page 34).

The setting in which compensatory education should take place has been widely debated. This debate is grounded to a great extent in the misunderstanding surrounding the federal requirements that Chapter 1 funds supplement regular state and local funds rather than substitute for them and to serve only selected students rather than furnish general aid. While Chapter 1 regulations and statutes state that Chapter 1 services do not have to be provided outside the regular classroom, state and local concerns about audit violations have contributed to the implementation of programs that pull the student out of the regular classroom for a limited amount of time. These programs appear to be the clearest method of ensuring compliance with Chapter 1 fiscal regulatory provisions (U.S. Department of Education, 1987:55).

Slavin and Madden (1987:1), in a summary of the research in this area note that "Some researchers have found that the more time students spend in pull-out programs, the **less** they learned." Pull-outs have been criticized on the basis that there is little coordination with the regular classroom teacher, much time is lost in transition between regular and pull-out settings, and pull-outs rarely increase the amount of time that students receive instruction. At the same time, one researcher concluded: "What is disconcerting . . . is that the proponents of pullout have comparatively little evidence to justify its widespread use and the critics of pullout would be similarly hard-pressed to justify a wholesale shift to in-class instruction." (Archambault, 1986:2).

Leinhardt and Pallay (1982:557), after reviewing a number of studies concluded that "the variables which are most important for successful student outcomes can occur in most settings . . . it is the issue of effective practices, not setting, that deserves the attention of educators." While millions of dollars continue to be spent on documenting Normal Curve Equivalent gains or losses to satisfy federal evaluation requirements, a neglected area of study continues to be the identification of quality effective compensatory education program practices.

CHAPTER III

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Compensatory programs were designed primarily to provide supplementary instruction to alleviate the effects of educational deprivation. As various compensatory efforts have been implemented, the amount of funding available for districts in Texas has significantly increased. In the 1988-89 school year, over $658 million was allocated to Texas school districts for Chapter 1, Chapter 2, and state compensatory education programs. Although an accurate estimate is not available, many districts also expend a considerable amount of locally-generated funds in this effort. An expansion of student eligibility categories, in addition to the fiscal resources, resulted in an increase in the number of students served. Data obtained in Phase II indicate that a conservative estimate of the number of Texas students receiving direct compensatory instruction in 1986-87 exceeded 675,000 students.

Recent studies projecting the future demographic characteristics of the nation and Texas indicate that the nature of the disadvantaged population is rapidly changing. For example, Pallas, Natriello, and McDill (1989A:17) stated:

> We consider five key indicators associated with the educationally disadvantaged: minority racial/ethnic group, living in a poverty household, living in a single-parent family, having a poorly educated mother, and having a non-English speaking background. Each is correlated with poor performance in school, although not always for commonly understood or agreed-upon reasons.

Based upon these criteria, it is further noted that "the single most important factor in the school-age population of the future is the expected increase in both the number and proportion of traditionally disadvantaged young people."

These projections are similar to those found in a 1986 study conducted by Marshall and Bouvier entitled *Population Change and the Future of Texas* (page 50).

> The Texas educational system is at least near the national average in many key statistics and above average in others. Yet there is growing concern over the state's ability to adequately prepare its children for the next century. While much of this anxiety reflects qualitative rather than quantitative dimensions of education, the issue will not disappear soon. As we shall see, the challenge of providing quality education that will adequately prepare young Texans for their future adult roles may well be exacerbated by demographic shifts that will affect the size and composition of both the student and the teacher populations of tomorrow.

These projected demographic changes include an increase in statewide public school enrollment from 3.2 million students in 1988-89 to 4.4 million in the year 2000 and 5.4 million in 2035. Anglo and Black enrollments will remain fairly constant as Hispanic and Asian enrollments increase substantially (Marshall and Bouvier, 1986:53). Pallas, Natriello, and McDill (1989B:17) note that racial and ethnic group status are correlated with other indicators of being disadvantaged and that ". . . assuming a constant relationship between racial/ethnic group identity and poverty, as the number and proportion of black and Hispanic children increase, so too will the number and proportion of children in poverty."

As the number of educationally disadvantaged students increases, demands will be made for more public funds to meet their educational, physical, and emotional needs. New and cost-effective approaches will be required to serve disadvantaged students who will make up a large majority of the student population in some schools in Texas and in other states. More school districts may choose to implement schoolwide projects that allow the design of Chapter 1 projects to upgrade the entire educational program if at least 75 percent of the students attending the school are from low-income families. Another alternative to serving at-risk students might include expanded use of the year-round school concept. While year-round schools have been most often implemented in response to overcrowding, they can also provide a way for students to receive additional remedial services.

Innovative approaches to evaluation will be needed to identify effective compensatory instructional models and program practices. This will include studies that go beyond the use of single outcome measures such as Normal Curve Equivalent gains on standardized achievement tests. The following chapter will present the evaluation strategy adopted for this study.

CHAPTER IV

EVALUATION STRATEGY

A variety of theoretical approaches were reviewed to plan and conduct the study. Stufflebeam and Webster (1980) provide an overview of 13 conceptual frameworks that have been adopted for use in educational evaluation. Of the 13, three models contained elements appropriate for use in the Phase III evaluation of compensatory programs. These included decision-oriented studies, questions-oriented studies, and client-centered studies.

A review of the literature related to ethnographic models also was undertaken. Adopting such a subjective approach would have provided the capacity to incorporate unintended outcomes and other subtle aspects of the educational environment into the study design (Koppelman, 1979). Fetterman (1982) has cautioned against educators adopting an ethnographic model without having appropriate training. Although none of the conceptual frameworks reviewed were adequate on their own for the purpose of this study, each provided some insight into different aspects of the program. While this study is first and foremost a case study, it can also serve as an example of how ethnographically oriented studies can be used with other techniques. The case study approach was selected because it provided a means of gathering comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information about the individual programs in the study.

The conceptual framework adopted for this study was drawn from the social research consultation literature. As is the case with most program evaluations, this study has little to contribute in terms of general theoretical significance. The intent of this study is to provide a basis for action. Because of this, the goals of the evaluation and implementation were considered at all stages of the process (Ferrell and Compton, 1986).

Based on Warren's (1963) conceptual model, evaluation is seen as a process in which the development of the evaluation design and the construction of the findings is a process of negotiation among the evaluators, program staff, administrators, and school personnel. This process continues after the study is completed and determines to what extent the recommendations of the study are implemented as well. This model has recently been further expanded in *Fourth Generation Evaluation* (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Warren (1963:68) notes that:

> a research project is a social action episode involving task accomplishment (including both the research and its implementation), in which a consultant enters into a relationship with a client system, and of which is set up a study system. Both of these systems undergo planned and unplanned changes as the tasks of research and implementation are attempted.

There were a number of stages in the development of this study which illustrate this model. First, using qualitative techniques for data collection was a new approach to providing information to decision-makers at the state level. Historically, the evaluation division had relied primarily on product information using data such as standardized test scores and large-scale surveys that lend themselves to quantitative analysis. Selection of campuses to participate in the study was a second step in the study design that was a process of negotiation among evaluation staff, program staff, and school district personnel. While the evaluation staff assumed primary responsibility for producing the report, the content of the report and its findings were also negotiated. The final stage of negotiation takes place once the report has been presented to the State Board of Education. The degree of consideration given to the findings and recommendations of the report and any resulting action complete the final stage of negotiation.

Two components are included in the case study of compensatory programs on the seven elementary campuses. The first consisted of a data collection instrument sent to each campus requesting detailed information about the campus and the compensatory program. The second component consisted of a site visit made to each campus during the spring of 1989.

The campus data collection instrument requested detailed information about the entire campus, including enrollment, promotion rates, class size, test scores, and other descriptive information. In addition, similar information was collected on the students enrolled in the compensatory program. Achievement test scores and the percentage of students passing each subtest of the Texas Educational Assessment of Minimum Skills (TEAMS) were collected for the 1986-87, 1987-88, and 1988-89 school years. Considerable staff effort was required in the participating districts to provide these data. Campuses do not routinely collect this information in the manner requested, especially for compensatory students as defined for the purposes of this study.

In the spring of 1989, teams of two or three Agency staff members made site visits to each of the seven campuses. For each visit, at least one staff member from the Division of Program Evaluation and one from the Division of Special Programs participated. During the site visits the following activities took place:

1. Agency staff reviewed the 1987-88 Compensatory Education Instructional Services Report with the campus principal. The purpose of this review was to verify the accuracy of data submitted during Phase II of the compensatory education evaluation, since these data were used to select the program for Phase III.
2. Agency staff reviewed and collected the campus-level data collection instrument.
3. Interviews lasting from 1 to 1½ hours were conducted separately with the district's compensatory education program coordinator, the campus principal, and three or four compensatory education teachers, depending upon the size of the campus. Specific information gathered in these interviews remains confidential.

Interview guides were developed in cooperation with the Division of Special Programs. Staff in several school districts that did not participate in the study reviewed and made recommendations for modifications to the interview guides. Guides were developed for the program coordinator, the principal, and the teachers and some of the questions were asked across roles as well as across campuses. Each of the guides listed questions and issues to be explored during the interviews. These lists were not intended to be used as tightly structured sets of questions to produce a range of likely responses. Rather, the purpose was to insure that each interviewer asked for the same information. Consistency was important, since a total of 11 Agency staff members participated in the site visits to compensatory programs. The interview guides also helped insure that the limited time available for each interview was best used.

The interview guides and the campus data collection instrument were mailed to each district contact person and each campus principal at least two weeks in advance of the site visit. In this way, the staff were better prepared to provide complete and more thoughtful responses. Prior to the interview, the purpose of the study was explained to interviewees, and permission was asked to tape record the interview. Tape recording was an indispensable procedure, since it does not "tune out" conversations or change what has been said because of interpretation, and it allows the interviewer to be more attentive to the interview (Patton, 1980).

A total of seven principals, six compensatory education program coordinators, and 28 compensatory education teachers were interviewed. All interviewees agreed to be tape recorded except two teachers. Those interviewed were ten third grade teachers, seven first grade teachers, four second grade teachers, three fourth and three fifth grade teachers, and one sixth grade teacher. Some of them taught more than one grade level. Extractions from each of the interviews were processed using the Microsoft Word software package. A total of 155 single-spaced typed pages of transcripts were obtained.

Information from the campus data collection instrument was carefully reviewed and the district contact person was contacted if data were missing or appeared to be incorrect. Data were then processed using LOTUS 1-2-3 and descriptive statistical procedures were performed.

Once the interviews had been processed, THE ETHNOGRAPH software package was used for analyses. THE ETHNOGRAPH is a set of interactive, menu driven computer programs designed to assist the qualitative researcher in some of the mechanical aspects of data analysis. By coding passages from the interviews, this software package allows the data to be indexed, sorted, and recombined in a variety of ways. For example, the interviews were sorted by role (e.g. principal and teacher) and then classified into categories such as curriculum and instruction or role of the administrator.

The purpose of classifying qualitative data in preparation for content analysis is to facilitate the search for patterns and themes within a particular setting or across cases (Patton, 1980). In this study, the content analysis focused upon the identification of effective program practices.

In sum, the evaluation strategy developed for this study was determined by the question being asked. In order to verify and identify effective compensatory program practices, a case study approach was considered to be appropriate. Quantitative data were collected to document the quality of the programs selected for the study and to provide a basis for comparing and contrasting the compensatory program across campuses along standardized dimensions. These data also provided a means of investigating the use of multiple outcome variables in the analysis.

Qualitative data were collected to determine how the compensatory program operates; to determine what those directly involved consider to be the most important factors leading to the program's success; to discover and document what it is like to be a participant in the program; and to capture the perceived facts about the program. It is a way of answering questions, such as, "What services are provided to students?", "What do staff do?", and "How is the program organized?"

CHAPTER V

PROGRAM SELECTION

Selecting the elementary compensatory education programs to be included in the study was made through a process of negotiation among staff from the Division of Program Evaluation, the Division of Special Programs, and school district staff. Both objective and subjective criteria were used to select the programs. The sampling strategy chosen for the case study was purposeful sampling, in that the study was designed to identify quality compensatory programs. For purposes of this study, quality programs represented programs that, based on three outcome variables, were performing above the state average. Other considerations included making an attempt to select programs in small, medium, and large size districts; programs from different geographical regions of the state; and programs that varied by wealth and ethnicity. As noted by Patton, with limited resources and time, "Decision makers and evaluators think through what cases they could learn the most from, and those are the cases selected for the study." (Patton, 1980:101). While studying a small sample of cases does not technically permit broad generalizations to be made, logical generalizations can sometimes be made from the evidence produced.

Programs included in the selection process were those for which data were available by fall 1988 from the 1987-88 (Phase II) evaluation of compensatory education. Composite scores used to select quality elementary compensatory programs included the following:

- promotion rates for third grade compensatory education students;
- exit rates from the compensatory education program for third grade students; and
- TEAMS average scaled reading scores for third grade Chapter 1 students.

Parallel analyses were conducted on data for fifth grade students in order to examine the stability of the scores. To remove location and scale attributes from the various measures, all measures were standardized to a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. Scores of one or more standard deviations below the mean were assigned a value of – 1.0. Scores falling between one standard deviation above or below the mean were assigned a value of zero. Scores of one or more standard deviations above the mean were assigned a value of 1.0. Assigned values were summed into composite scores. Composite scores were not computed for any campuses with missing values.

Since the distributions of promotion rates were negatively skewed with large standard deviations, the values assigned to promotion rates for summing into composite scores were based on .5 standard deviation from the mean, rather than one standard deviation from the mean. Values for all other variables were based on one standard deviation as described.

Campuses were ordered from highest composite score to lowest composite score. Campuses with fewer than ten students taking the TEAMS test were eliminated from the selection. Campuses with the highest composite score were then considered for selection. The selection procedure was a collaborative effort between the Division of Program Evaluation and the Division of Special Programs. As stated previously, an effort was made to select programs in small, medium, and large size districts; programs from different geographical regions of the state; and programs that varied by wealth and ethnicity. A primary consideration was selecting programs with a sufficient number of students to serve the purposes of the study.

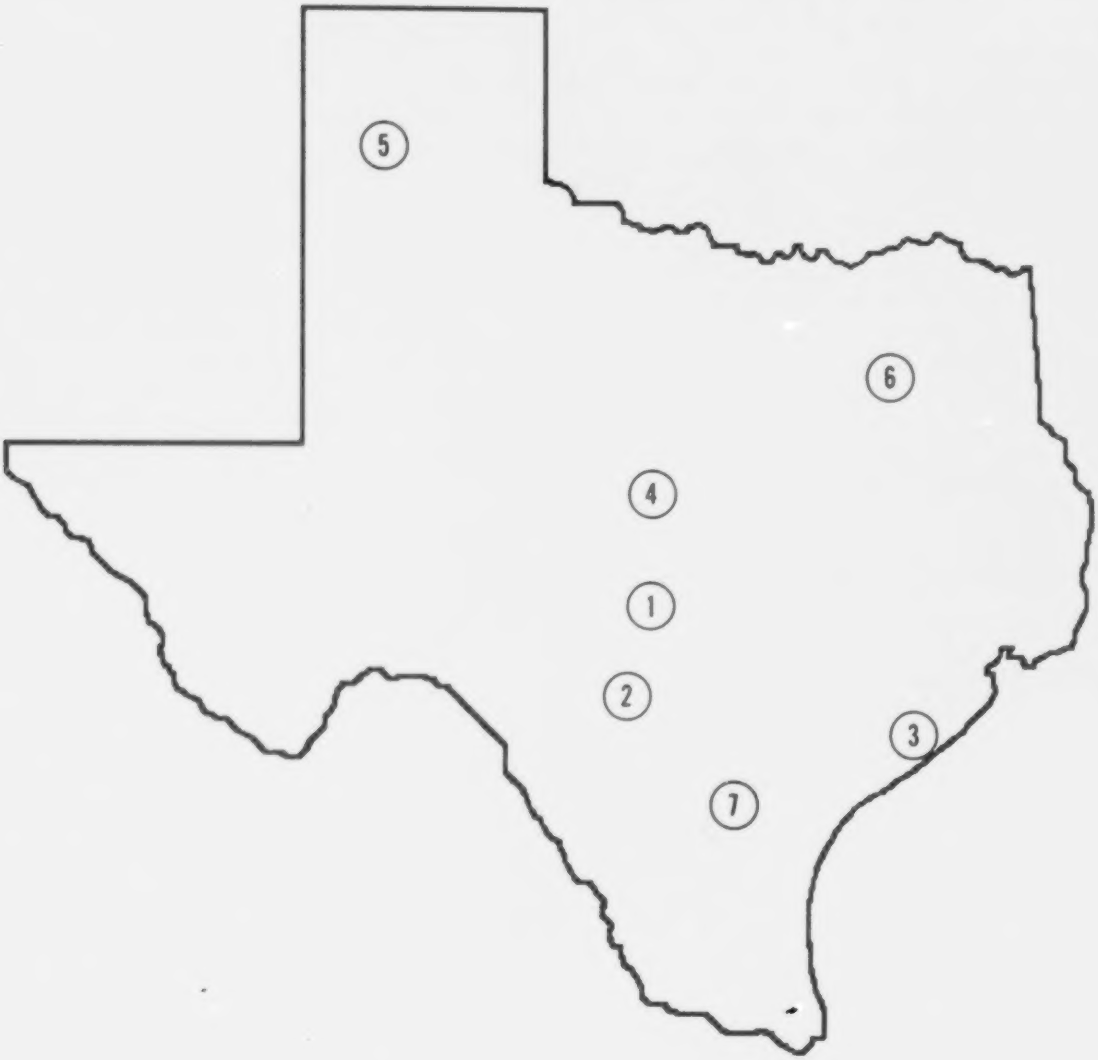
On February 8, 1989, a letter was sent to 18 superintendents requesting one elementary campus from each district to participate in an in-depth study of the compensatory program during the spring of 1989. All but one district agreed to participate in the study. A final review of data available for the 17 programs was conducted and seven programs were chosen to participate in the study. Factors influencing the final selection included district staff's perceptions of the program's quality, the geographic location, and size of the district. After the final selection was made, site visits were scheduled for March and April of 1989 and the campus data collection instrument and interview guides were mailed to the district. One district, upon receiving the data collection instrument, withdrew from the study because of the extensive data being requested. This district was replaced with one of the remaining ten programs that had not been included in the final selection.

The seven campuses visited in the spring of 1989 were:

1. Austin I.S.D.—Metz Elementary (Grades pk-6)
2. Edgewood I.S.D.—Perales Elementary (Grades pk-6)
3. Brazosport I.S.D.—O.A. Fleming Elementary (Grades pk-5)
4. Killeen I.S.D.—Pershing Park Elementary (Grades pk-5)
5. Hereford I.S.D.—Aikman Primary School (Grades k-3)
6. Tyler I.S.D.—Jones Elementary (Grades pk-5)
7. Pettus I.S.D.—Pettus Elementary (Grades k-5)

Illustration I shows the geographical location of these seven campuses. The following section will present the findings of the study.

ILLUSTRATION I
GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS



1. Austin ISD—Metz Elementary
2. Edgewood ISD—Perales Elementary
3. Brazosport ISD—O.A. Fleming Elementary
4. Killeen ISD—Pershing Park Elementary
5. Hereford ISD—Aikman Primary School
6. Tyler ISD—Jones Elementary
7. Pettus ISD—Pettus Elementary

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS

As previously noted, a case study approach was selected as the most appropriate strategy for identifying effective compensatory education practices. Quantitative data were collected to document the quality of the programs selected for the study and to provide a basis for comparing and contrasting the compensatory programs across standardized dimensions. Qualitative data were collected to determine how the compensatory program operates, what those directly involved consider to be the most important factors leading to the program's success, and to capture the perceived facts about the program.

As indicated in the selective review of the literature, the predominant approach in the evaluation of compensatory programs has been to examine Normal Curve Equivalent gains or losses to satisfy federal evaluation requirements. It was noted that a neglected area of study continues to be the identification of quality programs using multiple outcome measures and the identification of effective compensatory education practices. The findings presented in this section are intended to provide a different perspective on compensatory programs than is available from studies using one outcome variable. These findings may also provide a basis for the further investigation of effective compensatory program practices.

The findings section is divided into two parts. Part I (pages 21-36) will present data collected through the campus data collection instrument. In general, these data provide a description of the campus and the compensatory program on each campus. The primary purpose of Part I is to document the quality of the compensatory programs and to illustrate how the compensatory program is integrated into the overall educational program.

Part II (pages 37-72) presents the data collected through interviews with campus principals, program coordinators, and teachers. The focus of Part II is on identifying effective compensatory program practices.

PART I

CAMPUS DATA

The findings presented in this section are based upon information obtained from a data collection instrument completed by each of the seven campuses. Specific information was collected on the entire campus as well as on the students enrolled in the campus compensatory program. The purpose of this section is to describe the population served on the campuses, to document the quality of the compensatory programs, and to describe the relationship of the compensatory program to the entire campus. **For the remainder of this report, the names of the campuses have been changed to maintain the confidentiality of the data.** Five topics will be discussed including:

- Campus and program enrollment and demographics
- Relationship of the compensatory program to the total campus
- Student performance
- Amount of teacher time spent in direct compensatory instruction
- Instructional approaches and arrangements

CAMPUS AND PROGRAM ENROLLMENT AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Individual campus statistics are shown in Table 1: total enrollment, grade levels served, percent attendance , minority enrollment, enrollment in the free/reduced price lunch program (FRPL), average class size, and Limited English Proficient (LEP) enrollment. "Total enrollment" represents enrollment as of approximately October 28, 1988. Total enrollment varied from 246 students on the Bluebonnet Elementary campus to 792 on the Pecan Elementary campus. All campuses reported 94% or higher average daily attendance.

TABLE 1
CAMPUS CHARACTERISTICS
1988-89

Campus	Total Enrollment	Grade Levels Served	Attendance* (%)	Minority Enrollment (%)	F/RPL (%)	Average Class Size	LEP Enrollment (%)
Lone Star Elem.	437	K-3	95	74	72	22	20
Mockingbird Elem.	423	PK-5	98	73	56	20	22
Bluebonnet Elem.	246	PK-5	97	83	80	15	0
Waterloo Elem.	511	PK-6	97	98	81	15	37
Alamo Elem.	665	PK-6	94	98	94	22	19
Pecan Elem.	792	PK-5	98	53	44	19	2
Southern Elem.	259	K-5	95	47	66	19	6

*Percent attendance is percentage of total enrollment. For example, 216 Average Daily Attendance (ADA)/256 Total Enrollment = 84% attendance.

While other Agency data indicate the statewide percentage of minority enrollment in grades kindergarten through six is 49%, six of the seven campuses reported a minority enrollment of 50% or higher. Only one campus, Southern Elementary, reported slightly less (47%) minority enrollment. Three of the seven reported that over 80% of the students enrolled were minority students.

All but one of the campuses reported that a majority of the students participated in the FRPL program. The seventh campus, Pecan Elementary, reported that 44% of the students were enrolled in the FRPL program. Statewide, the percentage of students enrolled in the FRPL program in October 1988 was 37%.

Texas Education Code, Section §16.054, requires all school districts to maintain a pupil/teacher ratio of no more than 22:1 for grades one through four beginning with the 1988-89 school year. Average class size for the campuses varied from 15 at Waterloo Elementary and Bluebonnet Elementary to 22 at Alamo Elementary and Lone Star Elementary. Analysis of the 1988-89 Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS) teacher assignment data reveals that the average class size statewide for elementary classes is 20.5 students.

There was considerable variation in the LEP enrollment among the seven campuses. The largest LEP population (37%) was reported by the Waterloo Elementary campus. Three of the campuses reported 6% or less of the students classified as LEP. According to other Agency data, 11% of the students statewide are identified as LEP in grades kindergarten through 6.

In Table 2 retention rates are presented for the seven campuses. Overall, the highest retention rates were found at the first grade level. In the first grade, retention rates varied from less than ten percent of the students on two campuses to 24% on the Bluebonnet Elementary campus. Only one campus (Southern Elementary) reported retaining students at the kindergarten level. Southern Elementary was also found to retain students at a higher rate than the other six campuses at other grade levels, but small percentages of students (1-6%) were found to be retained at four of the other campuses at grade levels other than grade one.

TABLE 2

RETENTION RATES (Percent Retained)
1987-88

	Grade Level							
Campus	**PK**	**K**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Lone Star Elem.	N/A	0	14	4	2	N/A	N/A	N/A
Mockingbird Elem.	0	0	23	5	2	0	0	N/A
Bluebonnet Elem.	0	0	24	0	0	0	0	N/A
Waterloo Elem.	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	0
Alamo Elem.	0	0	8	3	1	0	1	0
Pecan Elem.	0	0	14	2	2	6	2	N/A
Southern Elem.	N/A	6	7	0	11	9	5	N/A

N/A = Not Applicable

In sum, while there is considerable variation among the campuses visited, all can be characterized as serving a population that is at-risk. As noted previously in this report, being a member of a minority racial/ethnic group, living in a poverty household (FRPL), and having a non-English background are all associated with poor performance in school, although the reasons underlying the association are not agreed upon.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE COMPENSATORY PROGRAM TO THE TOTAL CAMPUS

Considerable variation was found among the campuses in the percentage of students enrolled in the compensatory education program (Table 3). One campus, Waterloo Elementary, reported the entire school population participating in the compensatory program. The Mockingbird Elementary campus reported 79%. Two campuses, Bluebonnet Elementary and Alamo Elementary enrolled nearly half of their students in the compensatory program. The other three campuses reported less than 35% of their students as being enrolled. Generally, these data indicate a higher compensatory education enrollment for these campuses than the statewide percentage found in Phase II (23%).

TABLE 3

COMPENSATORY EDUCATION ENROLLMENT
RELATIVE TO TOTAL CAMPUS ENROLLMENT (Percentage)
1988-89

Campus	Total Campus Enrollment	Compensatory Program Enrollment	Compensatory Program Enrollment (%)
Lone Star Elem.	437	149	34
Mockingbird Elem.	423	336	79
Bluebonnet Elem.	246	119	48
Waterloo Elem.	511	511	100
Alamo Elem.	665	313	47
Pecan Elem.	792	208	26
Southern Elem.	259	56	22

In Table 4, a high percentage of minority students is shown to be enrolled in the compensatory program. All campuses reported 60% or higher minority enrollment. Two campuses, Waterloo Elementary and Alamo Elementary, had nearly 100% minority enrollment. Lone Star Elementary and Bluebonnet Elementary reported that 85% to 86% of their compensatory students were minority students. Pecan Elementary reported the lowest minority participation in the program with 60%. In Table 4 the percentage of minority enrollment for the entire campus is compared to the percentage of minority enrollment in the compensatory program. Minority enrollment was one to 15 percent higher in the compensatory program for six of the seven campuses.

TABLE 4

COMPENSATORY PROGRAM MINORITY ENROLLMENT RELATIVE TO TOTAL CAMPUS MINORITY ENROLLMENT (Percentage)

1988-89

Campus	Minorities on Campus (%)	Minorities in Compensatory Program (%)	Difference (%)
Lone Star Elem.	74	85	11
Mockingbird Elem.	73	75	2
Bluebonnet Elem.	83	86	3
Waterloo Elem.	98	98	0
Alamo Elem.	98	99	1
Pecan Elem.	53	60	7
Southern Elem.	47	62	15

Little difference was found between the percentage of minority students enrolled on the campus and the percentage of minority students in the compensatory program. Only the Lone Star Elementary and the Southern Elementary campuses were found to have more than a ten percent difference. These data indicate that campuses with a high minority enrollment also tend to have a high minority enrollment in the compensatory program.

Similar to the overall campus, data in Table 5 for compensatory programs indicate that six of the seven campuses have more than 50 percent of the students participating in the FRPL program. While Mockingbird Elementary reported that 38 percent of the compensatory students are enrolled in the FRPL program, Alamo Elementary reported 100 percent of the students as enrolled in the FRPL program. Phase II of this study found that statewide, 56 percent of the compensatory students are eligible for the FRPL program. The majority of the seven campuses in this study reported a higher percent of compensatory students are eligible for the FRPL program than was found in Phase II. In summary, it should be noted that these campuses have no more favorable demographics than the average campus. That is, superior performance cannot be attributed to more favorable demographics.

TABLE 5

COMPENSATORY STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN THE FREE REDUCED PRICE LUNCH PROGRAM (F/RPL)

Campus	Compensatory Program Enrollment	Compensatory Student Enrollment in F/RPL	Compensatory Student in F/RPL (%)
Lone Star Elem.	149	112	75
Mockingbird Elem.	336	126	38
Bluebonnet Elem.	119	87	73
Waterloo Elem.	511	412	80
Alamo Elem.	313	313	100
Pecan Elem.	208	107	51
Southern Elem.	56	39	70

STUDENT PERFORMANCE

This section will include performance data for students enrolled in the compensatory education program on each of the seven campuses. The purpose of these analyses is to examine the performance of the students enrolled in the compensatory programs on these campuses. Both TEAMS scores and achievement test scores are analyzed. In Table 6, TEAMS scores for first grade students in 1988-89 are compared to the statewide percentage of Chapter 1 students mastering each subtest. Next, TEAMS scores for the first grade class in the 1986-87 compensatory education program are compared to the third grade class of compensatory education students in 1988-1989. A similar comparison is made between the third grade class of compensatory education students in 1986-87 and the fifth grade class of compensatory education students in 1988-89. This is a reasonable approach to documenting the performance of the students enrolled in compensatory education on these campuses, but it is limited in two ways. First, the effect of student mobility is difficult to assess. Second, the most successful students in the compensatory education program who were in the first or third grade in 1986-87 may have exited the program before or during the 1988-89 school year.

Achievement test scores for all seven campuses are also presented. This analysis demonstrates that while student performance on TEAMS has shown improvement, there has been little increase in the student achievement as measured by independent achievement tests.

TEAMS RESULTS

The TEAMS program evaluates an individual student's competency in mathematics, reading, and writing. Questions in the program's criterion-referenced tests relate to specific learning objectives and levels of proficiency in skills in which the students should have received instruction. Illustrated in Table 6 is a comparison of 1988-89 TEAMS mastery percentages among first grade students in each of the participating programs, first graders in the statewide Chapter 1 Regular program, and the statewide population of first grade students. In Tables 7, 8, and 9, the percent of students mastering the TEAMS reading, mathematics, and writing subtests for the first grade class of compensatory education students in 1986-87 and the third grade class of compensatory education students in 1988-89 are shown. The percent of Chapter 1 Regular students statewide and all students statewide mastering each subtest are also provided. For all three grade levels examined, students enrolled in the compensatory education program on the seven campuses in this study compared favorably to students enrolled in Chapter 1 Regular programs statewide. While these are not necessarily exact comparisons, data for students in all compensatory programs statewide are not available.

As shown in Table 6, the 1988-89 TEAMS scores for all the first grade students statewide tested indicate that 85 percent mastered the reading subtest; 92 percent mastered the mathematics subtest; and 91 percent mastered the writing subtest. Of the Chapter 1 Regular students tested, 67 percent mastered the reading subtest; 80 percent, the mathematics; and 81 percent, the writing. The compensatory education students on the campuses in this study compare favorably with the statewide results for Chapter 1 Regular students. For example, all seven campuses out-performed the statewide average on the reading subtest, five did so on the mathematics subtest, and six on the writing subtest. In some cases, the compensatory students mastered the TEAMS at a higher rate than the statewide average for all students tested. This was the case for three of the campuses in reading (Waterloo, Alamo, and Southern), one in mathematics (Mockingbird), and one in writing (Bluebonnet). The only campus reporting relatively poor performance on the first grade TEAMS was Pecan Elementary.

TABLE 6

First Grade TEAMS Mastery (Percentage)

1988-89

Campus	Reading (%)	Mathematics (%)	Writing (%)
Lone Star Elem.	76	84	86
Mockingbird Elem.	82	93	89
Bluebonnet Elem.	81	81	95
Waterloo Elem.	90	91	90
Alamo Elem.	100	87	90
Pecan Elem.	73	73	52
Southern Elem.	88	67	88
Chapter 1 Regular	67	80	81
Statewide	85	92	91

The results of the reading subtest are presented in Table 7. Statewide, 86 percent of all students tested mastered the reading subtest at the third grade level in 1988-89. For Chapter 1 Regular students, there is an increase of six percentage points when first grade students in 1986-87 are compared to third grade Chapter 1 Regular students in 1988-89. Students enrolled in five of the seven compensatory education programs in this study exceeded this increase, and a sixth program reported that 100 percent of the first grade and third grade compensatory students mastered the reading subtest both years. The seventh campus, Bluebonnet Elementary, reported a decrease of 14 percentage points, but 86 percent of the compensatory students mastered the reading subtest.

Noteworthy improvement in the percentage of third grade students mastering the reading subtest as compared to the first grade students was reported by Lone Star Elementary (+ 53 percentage points), Pecan Elementary (+ 38 percentage points), and Waterloo Elementary (+ 31 percentage points). Test score comparisons for the Waterloo Elementary campus must be interpreted in light of the fact that the campus was not a schoolwide project in 1986-87. The average percentage of compensatory students mastering the third grade reading subtest in 1988-89 for all seven campuses was 86 percent—equal to the percentage of all students statewide mastering the reading subtest.

TABLE 7

TEAMS Reading Subtest Mastery—Grades One and Three (Percentage)

Campus	First Grade (%) 1986-87	Third Grade (%) 1988-89	Change (Percentage Points)
Lone Star Elem.	32	85	+53
Mockingbird Elem.	63	77	+14
Bluebonnet Elem.	100	86	-14
Waterloo Elem.	46	77	+31
Alamo Elem.	84	94	+10
Pecan Elem.	47	85	+38
Southern Elem.	100	100	0
Chapter 1 Regular	56	62	+ 6
Statewide	79	86	+ 7

The results of the mathematics subtest are presented in Table 8. According to a comparison similar to the one in Table 7, the campuses in this study compared favorably in the results of the mathematics subtest. Of all students tested statewide, 92 percent mastered the third grade mathematics subtest. Of the Chapter 1 Regular students tested, there was an increase of 12 percentage points when first grade students in 1986-87 are compared to third grade students in 1988-89. Six of the seven campuses in this study exceeded this increase, and the seventh, Bluebonnet Elementary, reported that 100 percent of the third grade students mastered the mathematics subtest in 1988-89. Both the Pecan Elementary and the Alamo Elementary campuses showed an increase of more than 40 percentage points in the number of students mastering this subtest. The average percent of compensatory students mastering the mathematics subtest in 1988-89 for all seven campuses was 95 percent, exceeding the statewide average.

TABLE 8

TEAMS MATHEMATICS SUBTEST MASTERY—GRADES ONE AND THREE (Percentage)

Campus	First Grade (%) 1986-87	Third Grade (%) 1988-89	Change (Percentage Points)
Lone Star Elem.	63	77	+14
Mockingbird Elem.	74	100	+26
Bluebonnet Elem.	95	100	+ 5
Waterloo Elem.	54	88	+34
Alamo Elem.	59	100	+41
Pecan Elem.	50	97	+47
Southern Elem.	75	100	+25
Chapter 1 Regular	71	83	+12
Statewide	87	92	+ 5

The results of the writing subtest are shown in Table 9. Of all the third grade students tested statewide in 1988-89, 79 percent mastered the writing subtest. For Chapter 1 Regular students, there was a decrease of 14 percentage points when first grade scores in 1986-87 are compared to third grade scores in 1988-89. Only 57 percent of the students mastered the writing subtest in third grade. Of the seven compensatory programs in this study, six reported a higher percentage of students in 1989 mastered the writing subtest than was found for Chapter 1 Regular students statewide. Two programs, Mockingbird Elementary and Bluebonnet Elementary, reported that over 90 percent of the compensatory students mastered the writing subtest. The average percentage of all students mastering the third grade writing subtest in 1988-89 for all seven campuses was 74 percent, 17 percentage points higher than Chapter 1 Regular students and only five percentage points less than the statewide average for all students.

TABLE 9

TEAMS Writing Subtest Mastery—Grades One and Three (Percentage)

Campus	First Grade (%) 1986-87	Third Grade (%) 1988-89	Change (Percentage Points)
Lone Star Elem.	38	62	+24
Mockingbird Elem.	82	94	+12
Bluebonnet Elem.	100	93	-7
Waterloo Elem.	49	79	+30
Alamo Elem.	50	66	+16
Pecan Elem.	55	43	-12
Southern Elem.	75	84	+9
Chapter 1 Regular	71	57	-14
Statewide	86	79	-7

Tables 7 through 9 illustrated TEAMS results comparing first grade students in 1986-87 to third grade students in 1988-89. For all three subtests of the TEAMS, students in these compensatory programs compared favorably to Chapter 1 Regular students statewide. The following discussion will compare TEAMS results for third grade compensatory students in 1986-87 to fifth grade students in 1988-89. Further comparisons will be made to Chapter 1 Regular students statewide.

In Table 10 the results of the reading subtest for the third grade class of compensatory education students in 1986-87 are compared to the fifth grade class of compensatory education students in 1988-89. Statewide, 85 percent of all students tested mastered the fifth grade reading subtest in 1988-89. For Chapter 1 Regular students, there is an increase of 13 percentage points when third grade students in 1986-87 are compared to fifth grade students in 1988-89. Five of the compensatory programs in this study exceeded this increase, one showed a decrease of 11 percentage points, and one campus had students enrolled in grades kindergarten through three only. The Waterloo Elementary campus reported an increase of 56 percentage points in the number of students mastering the reading subtest. However, it should be noted that the compensatory program was not a schoolwide project in 1986-87. Four other campuses reporting a considerable increase were the Bluebonnet Elementary, Pecan Elementary, Alamo Elementary, and Mockingbird Elementary. All six of the compensatory education programs that offered a fifth grade program reported that the percentage of fifth grade students in 1988-89 mastering the reading subtest was equal to or higher than the percentage of Chapter 1 Regular students mastering the reading subtest (62). The average percentage of all compensatory education students from all six campuses mastering the fifth grade reading subtest in 1988-89 was 83, only two percentage points less than the percentage of all fifth grade students statewide mastering the reading subtest.

TABLE 10

TEAMS READING SUBTEST MASTERY—GRADES THREE AND FIVE (Percentage)

Campus	Third Grade (%) 1986-87	Fifth Grade (%) 1988-89	Change (Percentage Points)
Lone Star Elem.	40	N/A	N/A
Mockingbird Elem.	72	96	+24
Bluebonnet Elem.	40	79	+39
Waterloo Elem.	24	80	+56
Alamo Elem.	64	95	+31
Pecan Elem.	53	85	+32
Southern Elem.	73	62	–11
Chapter 1 Regular	49	62	+13
Statewide	79	85	+ 6

N/A = Not Applicable

In Table 11, the results of the mathematics subtest are presented. Statewide, 89 percent of all students tested mastered the fifth grade mathematics in 1988-89. For Chapter 1 Regular students, there was an increase of four percentage points when third graders in 1986-87 are compared to fifth grade students in 1988-89. Five of the six compensatory education programs offering a fifth grade program exceeded this increase and one program, Mockingbird Elementary, reported a decrease of 7 percentage points. However, the Mockingbird Elementary fifth grade compensatory students in 1988-89 still outperformed the statewide Chapter 1 Regular students with a mastery rate of 88 percent. The average percentage of all compensatory education students mastering the fifth grade mathematics subtest at the fifth grade level in 1988-89 is 88, one percentage point lower than the statewide percentage of all students mastering this subtest.

TABLE 11

TEAMS MATHEMATICS SUBTEST MASTERY—GRADES THREE AND FIVE (Percentage)

Campus	Third Grade (%) 1986-87	Fifth Grade (%) 1988-89	Change (Percentage Points)
Lone Star Elem.	59	N/A	N/A
Mockingbird Elem.	95	88	– 7
Bluebonnet Elem.	80	86	+ 6
Waterloo Elem.	59	84	+25
Alamo Elem.	80	100	+20
Pecan Elem.	56	86	+30
Southern Elem.	43	85	+42
Chapter 1 Regular	71	75	+ 4
Statewide	86	89	+ 3

N/A = Not Applicable

The data in Table 12 indicate that 84 percent of all fifth grade students tested statewide and 62 percent of Chapter 1 Regular students mastered the writing subtest in 1988-89. In comparison, all six campuses offering a compensatory education program at the fifth grade level reported a higher mastery rate of this subtest than Chapter 1 Regular students. Four of the six campuses serving fifth grade students reported a higher mastery rate than the statewide average for all students tested. The increase in the number of percentage points of students mastering this subtest from third to fifth grade varied from 24 at Mockingbird to 71 at Southern Elementary.

TABLE 12

TEAMS WRITING SUBTEST MASTERY—GRADES THREE AND FIVE (Percentage)

Campus	Third Grade (%) 1986-87	Fifth Grade (%) 1988-89	Change (Percentage Points)
Lone Star Elem	39	N/A	N/A
Mockingbird Elem	65	89	+24
Bluebonnet Elem	30	86	+56
Waterloo Elem	26	76	+50
Alamo Elem	58	89	+31
Pecan Elem	28	75	+47
Southern Elem	14	85	+71
Chapter 1 Regular	43	62	+19
Statewide	71	84	+13

N/A = Not Applicable

In this section of the report, TEAMS scores have been presented for the seven campuses in this study and compared across years as well as to the scores of the students statewide and the Chapter 1 Regular students. Overall, student performance as measured by TEAMS documents the quality of all seven compensatory education programs. The compensatory education students' achievement test scores are presented in the following section.

ACHIEVEMENT SCORES

Table 13 illustrates 1988-89 Normal Curve Equivalent scores (NCEs) for students enrolled in the compensatory education program. In interpreting these scores, it should be noted that an NCE score of 50 is the national average for each grade level. Considerable variation is found among the seven programs. For example, the Mockingbird campus reported NCE scores between 42 and 64 at all three grade levels. Alamo Elementary, on the other hand, reported NCE scores as low as 7, with the highest being 27. This poor performance may be partly a result of a change in norms on the Stanford Achievement Test from 1987 to 1988.

TABLE 13

Achievement Test Scores
1988-1989

(NORMAL CURVE EQUIVALENTS)

	Reading			Mathematics			Language Arts		
Campus	**Grade 1**	**Grade 3**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 1**	**Grade 3**	**Grade 5**	**Grade 1**	**Grade 3**	**Grade 5**
Lone Star Elem.	48	42	N/A	58	46	N/A	*	52	N/A
Mockingbird Elem.	55	43	42	64	47	62	55	48	49
Bluebonnet Elem.	36	33	33	42	33	45	40	42	37
Waterloo Elem.	50	45	41	55	46	46	53	53	49
Alamo Elem.	23	26	27	7	13	19	*	*	*
Pecan Elem.	41	37	44	41	46	46	41	60	44
Southern Elem.	47	38	40	38	47	42	45	45	40

* = Missing Data
N/A = Students were not administered the language arts subtest at the first grade level on this campus.

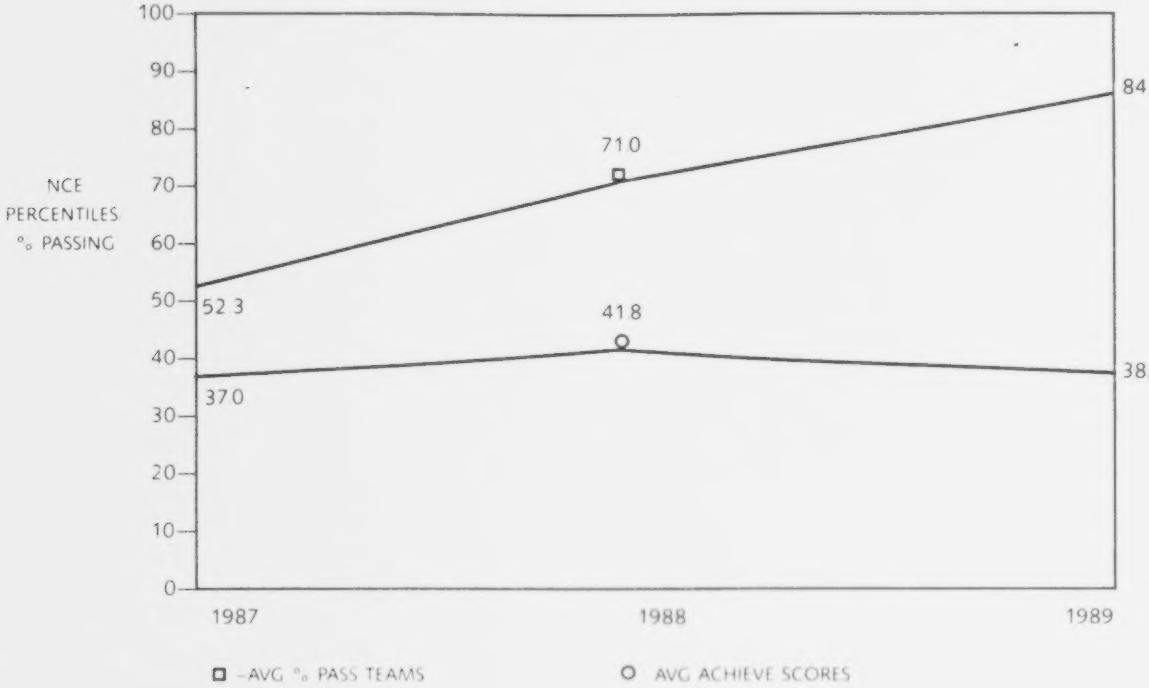
Scores for the Bluebonnet Elementary campus should also be considered in light of the fact that the campus administered the California Achievement Test in 1987-88 and changed to the Stanford Achievement Test in 1989. With the exception of the Alamo Elementary campus, scores for the other programs are close to what might be expected for students in compensatory education programs because of the selection criteria for the program. Comparisons to statewide achievement test scores for Chapter 1 Regular students are not possible since these campus-level data are unavailable.

Data in Illustration II present achievement scores in reading for third grade compensatory education students in 1986-87, 1987-88, and 1988-89 for all seven campuses. Similar illustrations for grades one and five are found in Appendix B. For 1986-87 and 1987-88, an average achievement test score was calculated. A weighted score was calculated for the 1988-89 school year. This average was obtained by multiplying the total number of students per campus taking the test by the actual test score. Once multiplied, the scores were added together and divided by the total number of students taking the test on all seven campuses. The difference observed between the weighted average and the "normal" average was minimal (one or two point differences in most cases). The first grade achievement test score showed the largest difference, with an average of 42 and a weighted average of 46.

ILLUSTRATION II

SUMMARY ALL PROGRAMS—3RD GRADE READING

AVERAGE ACHIEVEMENT SCORE AND AVERAGE MASTER TEAMS



This graphic illustration shows a different pattern for achievement test scores than for TEAMS scores. While the percentage of students mastering the third grade TEAMS reading subtest increased from 52 percent in 1986-87 to 84 percent in 1988-89, achievement test scores showed an average increase of one NCE. These results indicate that the population in compensatory education is stable in terms of achievement test scores. Successful students may be exiting the program, since many programs use achievement test scores to exit students from the program. However, TEAMS scores are improving, indicating a strong emphasis on the basic skills.

It is commonly assumed in examining NCE gains that students receiving only regular instruction will maintain, but not increase, their original percentile standing. In other words, although they increase their knowledge base, it is at a rate which only keeps them "even" with the rest of their peer group. By adding extra instruction, the students are expected to gain extra knowledge and thus increase their percentile standing. This assumption means that a gain score of zero is equivalent to "holding their own," and therefore any positive NCE gain indicates a positive program effect.

In sum, considerable variation is found among the seven compensatory education programs in terms of achievement as measured by norm-referenced achievement tests. The Mockingbird Elementary program reported that their compensatory education students were scoring near or above the national norm, while the Alamo Elementary program reported scores as low as a 7 NCE. A graph illustrating the difference in the percent of students mastering the TEAMS reading subtest at third grade and NCE scores over a three year period shows a different pattern for achievement test scores. While these programs have shown notable growth in the basic skills areas, little improvement was found in terms of achievement test scores. Some educators would interpret this difference as being a result of an overemphasis on the basic skills. Others would claim that the recent emphasis on basic skills has had the desired effect in that a higher percentage of students are now mastering TEAMS.

AMOUNT OF TEACHER TIME SPENT IN DIRECT COMPENSATORY INSTRUCTION

One way of illustrating the amount of effort devoted to the compensatory education program is to describe the amount of teacher time spent in direct compensatory education instruction. In Table 14, the percent of time spent in direct compensatory instruction by compensatory education teachers is presented. It should be noted that the amount of time in a school week varied from 1950 minutes at Lone Star Elementary to 2175 minutes at Mockingbird Elementary and Southern Elementary. The number of compensatory education teachers varied from three at Southern Elementary to 33 at Waterloo Elementary. With the exception of the Mockingbird campus, all other campuses reported that the compensatory education teachers spent 60 to 81 percent of their time instructing compensatory education students.

TABLE 14

PERCENT TIME SPENT IN DIRECT COMPENSATORY EDUCATION INSTRUCTION
COMPENSATORY EDUCATION TEACHERS

Campus	Total Number Minutes Per Week	Number Compensatory Education Teachers	Total Minutes Available for Direct Instruction	Percent Compensatory Education Instruction	Percent Regular Instruction
Waterloo Elem	2,100	33	69,300	75	25
Mockingbird Elem	2,175	8	17,400	26	74
Alamo Elem	2,100	20	42,000	60	40
Lone Star Elem	1,950	11	21,450	71	29
Pecan Elem	2,100	7	14,700	60	40
Southern Elem	2,175	3	6,525	69	31
Bluebonnet Elem	2,100	6	12,600	81	19

The percent of all instructional time spent in direct compensatory instruction for each campus is provided in Table 15. The total number of teachers on the campuses visited varied from 18 at Bluebonnet Elementary to 50.5 at Pecan Elementary. Considerable variation was found in terms of the total amount of instructional time on the campus devoted to compensatory education instruction. For the Mockingbird and Pecan Elementary campuses, only eight percent of instruction was compensatory instruction. Bluebonnet Elementary, Lone Star Elementary, and Alamo Elementary reported 27 to 33 percent of instruction as being compensatory instruction. Waterloo Elementary, a schoolwide program, reported 62 percent of its direct instructional time as being compensatory. This variation in the amount of instructional time spent in compensatory education is a reflection of the unique circumstances of each campus, as is the case with the instructional approaches and arrangements used on each campus. These data indicate that the percent of time in direct compensatory instruction is not predictive of student performance for these campuses.

TABLE 15

PERCENT TIME SPENT IN DIRECT COMPENSATORY EDUCATION INSTRUCTION
TOTAL CAMPUS

Campus	Total Number of Teachers	Percent Compensatory Education	Percent Regular Instruction
Waterloo Elem.	40	62	38
Mockingbird Elem.	26	8	92
Alamo Elem.	36	33	67
Lone Star Elem.	29	27	73
Pecan Elem.	50.5	8	92
Southern Elem.	20	10	90
Bluebonnet Elem.	18	27	73

INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES AND ARRANGEMENTS

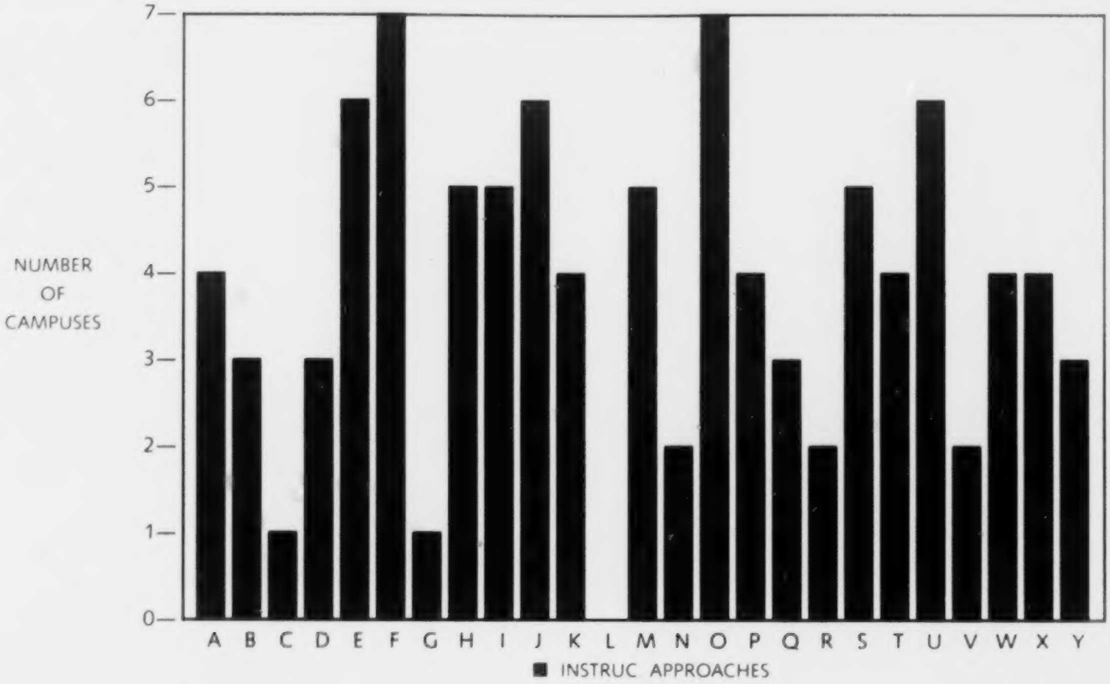
Illustration III shows the relative use of a variety of instructional approaches and arrangements reported by each of the seven compensatory education programs. As reported by the campuses, the data represent a duplicated count. That is, campuses commonly employ more than one type of approach. The terms, instructional arrangements and approaches, are generally used to describe program implementation. Arrangements typically are defined as the physical setting in which instruction occurs, and approaches typically represent the instructional methodology.

Because these terms are not always clearly separable, some arrangements may also be deemed approaches. Furthermore, certain instructional approaches may require unique instructional arrangements, while yet others may not. For example, computerized instruction requires a computer, but mastery learning can occur in a variety of instructional settings. This section has provided an overview of the compensatory programs' use of arrangements and approaches. As found in Phase II, many different approaches and arrangements are employed to deliver compensatory services. The two instructional approaches reported to be used by all seven programs were drill and practice and a reduced student teacher ratio.

ILLUSTRATION III

INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

IMPLEMENTED ON ALL CAMPUSES



A. Additional time on task
B. Aide in same class (Full-Day)
C. Alternative Education Programs
D. Basic Skills Instructions (Full-Day)
E. Compensatory Oriented Instruction (In Class)
F. Drill and Practice
G. Extended Day During Regular School
H. Extended School Year—Summer School
I. Grouping Heterogeneously
J. Grouping Homogeneously
K. Lab Setting With Computers
L. Lab Setting Without Computers
M. Mastery Learning
N. Peer Or Cross-Age Teaching
O. Reduced Instructor To Student Ratio
P. Resource Arrangement (Pull-Out)
Q. Self Paced, Continuous Program, or Individual
R. Send-In
S. Study Skills
T. Team Teaching
U. Test-Taking Skills
V. Transition Programs For Primary Grades
W. Tutorial Programs—Before or After School
X. Tutorial Programs During School Day

PART II

QUALITATIVE DATA

The findings presented in this section are based on information from the data collected through interviews with the campus principal, program coordinator, and teachers on each of the seven campuses visited. When appropriate, these data were supplemented with information submitted on the campus data collection instrument. Part II is divided into 11 sections, each addressing a component of an effective compensatory program. The areas addressed include:

- Philosophy and goals of the program
- Program organization
- Roles of the principal and program coordinator
- Program policies related to student identification, exiting students from the program, and promotion and retention
- Teacher qualifications and characteristics
- Curriculum and instruction
- Parental involvement
- Non-instructional support
- Staff development
- Program evaluation
- Resources

PHILOSOPHY AND GOALS OF THE PROGRAM

Underlying the various approaches to developing and implementing an effective compensatory program are belief systems that influence staff interaction with students and that determine the goals for the program. One belief found among staff on all seven campuses is that compensatory education is necessary and important. The program coordinator in one of the districts described the importance of compensatory education as follows:

> We must help students become achievers and maximize each child's learning ability to break the cycle of poverty and low achievement. We cannot afford to have an uneducated work force. We've got to have kids who have basic skills and work skills and flexibility to accommodate a rapidly changing state by the year 2000. The state cannot afford for us to give up on these students.

Given the importance of compensatory education, a principal stressed the importance of program philosophy to an effective program.

> I believe the most important factor in a successful educational program has to start with the belief in the system. A belief that all children have the potential to reach the highest level you can teach them . . . the belief that all children are gifted . . . the belief that poor children, black, white, brown, Vietnamese, all children deserve a quality educational program. That program has to start with what

> you believe about compensatory teachers. None of our teachers are remedial teachers. They teach with a belief that they're doing the best job they can for our children, regardless of their background. It all starts with the belief system because with that comes expectations, the commitment, the acting out of the belief system. With that comes a climate created by a team of people that challenges one's self, the team, and causes the children to believe and act in a way that says, "Yeah, I am gifted." I may not speak English, but I can learn . . . I may not be at the highest reading level yet, but I can get there.

Six elements of effective program's philosophy emerged in the interviews. These included:

- The importance of a positive attitude
- Staff assuming the responsibility for students' succeeding
- Setting high expectations for students and staff
- Developing goals for the program and students
- Not differentiating between regular and compensatory students
- Striving to improve

Maintaining a positive attitude was seen as important not only for the school itself but also within the community. When asked to relate a success story about the campus, one principal responded:

> My success story is successfully keeping the scores high, keeping a good climate, generating a good feeling in the community and around the campus about the school—not perfect but up in the 90's in terms of positive response about what's going on for parents and non-parents. A positive attitude in the community about what's happening. This is a good school on its way to becoming a model program even though we have a high percentage of disadvantaged children, even though the building is 30 years old—it's still a successful school. An effective school is effective because of the attitude—an attitude that every child who walks through the door is worthy of whatever attention it takes to succeed. I feel very proud of this school. This is an upbeat place for children and for staff.

A fourth grade teacher linked the importance of attitude with student performance by commenting:

> A lot of the instructional approach is our attitude toward it. If a teacher has a positive attitude toward every single student, they're going to learn. Because the more you keep telling them they can do it, they're going to do it.

"We hold each other responsible for what the children are learning" was a second element of the philosophy of the campuses visited. Instead of asking, "Why can't this child learn?", staff on the campuses visited would ask, "How else can I teach the same skill?, How else can I emphasize that concept to this child?" Related to this idea is the notion of not making excuses. As one principal emphasized:

> It makes me mad when I hear people say, "they're just low socioeconomic status (SES) kids and they can't learn." I really get upset when I hear that, because SES background has nothing to do with academic achievement as we prove here. Most of our kids are poor and come from one parent families—usually the mother. A lot have been subjected to child abuse. They see drugs, but we've never had drugs on this campus. That's a cop-out to say they can't do any better.

Not only did staff on these campuses refuse to make excuses for students not learning, but they expressed high expectations for the students in their classes.

> Every day I tell myself these students can learn and achieve success. I hold high expectations for them. They know I have high standards for them. If they turn in a shoddy piece of work, they know they will redo it. I teach them just like they're top kids.
>
> *3rd Grade Teacher*

> You talk about lowering standards—that's a low expectation behavior when you say "these kids have been identified as compensatory, so we're not going to expect them to get to the same level as the others." That's the worst kind of discrimination you can have—to expect less. You're going to get what you expect. The idea with compensatory is that you give them more help to get there.
>
> *Principal*

When asked, "What are the goals for achievement for students enrolled in the compensatory program?", principals, coordinators, and teachers agreed upon the following goals:

- Master TEAMS
- Function on grade level in reading and mathematics
- Exit the compensatory program and return to the regular program with confidence
- Expose the students to higher order thinking skills
- Extend and develop each student to his or her fullest potential

For the compensatory program, campuses had developed goals that were regularly reviewed by all staff.

> The reason we've had a certain level of success is that we look at goals for achievement in two ways—that all children will maintain a 97 percent attendance rate is one goal, and that their reading level will increase by 1.1 grade levels during the year is another goal. Same for mathematics. That 95% of the children will have mastered TEAMS in grades 1,3, and 5. On the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), all children will score above the 50th percentile. Basic to all of that, our basic goal for achievement is that every child will achieve his or her potential. Every child will do the very best he can. These are two very different ways of looking at it.
>
> *Principal*

Regardless of how the program was organized, the importance of not labelling compensatory students was another element of program philosophy found in all programs. Labelling students "compensatory" was seen as lowering expectations for the students. As one principal noted:

> We have had problems in the past with kids making fun of kids in the dumb class—the special education stigma. It stems from the labelling. We work real hard to not treat kids differently. Compensatory kids are expected to do as well as regular kids, and they're included in everything the regular kids do.

The program coordinator of one district explained the program in this way:

> Our compensatory education classes are no different than any other class. They are half-size classes taught like any other class. The difference between them is the efforts of the teacher. If the child is having difficulty, it is a different approach to teaching, but the goals and materials are the same. Additional materials are provided for the compensatory kids.

The last element of program philosophy identified was the notion that there is always room for improvement, for both the program and the students. This attitude was apparent when a teacher said, "They're performing well, but we always continue to expect more of them." For example, "last school year students were placed onto the honor roll with an A/B grade average; this school year it was changed to include only students with all A's to make it more challenging." From one principal's point of view, "There are effective schools—schools where all children are achieving the basic skills. The next step is to become an excellent school where you have a high percentage of your children mastering beyond the basic skills. Basics have to be there, but we have to move on."

This section has provided a description of six elements of a program philosophy that were found on all seven campuses visited. Although program philosophy is not something that can be easily measured, it is the foundation for the program. The next section will describe program organization such as the instructional arrangements implemented to meet individual student's needs.

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION

As noted in the selective review of the literature, considerable debate has occurred regarding the setting in which compensatory education takes place. In general, findings indicate that features of Chapter 1 programs that have tended to capture the attention of policy-makers such as pull-out and in-class programs and individualized instruction do not particularly influence student achievement, and probably should not receive the amount of policy concern that they have traditionally received (U.S. Department of Education, 1986B:91). Furthermore, the supposed additional instruction provided by Chapter 1 may not be an addition at all, but merely a replacement of one form of instruction for another.

Guffney and Schember (1982), in a study of 2,000 school districts, reported that 92 percent of the districts surveyed used a pull-out design for part or all of their program. Pull-out arrangements were defined to include instructional services provided to Chapter 1 students that differ from regular instruction only in the time and location of the classes. Approximately a third of the districts used an in-class model, and over half used a mixture of the in-class and pull-out model.

Another approach to providing compensatory services is the excess-cost model. This model consists of an arrangement where the pupil-teacher ratio at a grade level is substantially reduced, usually by a factor of approximately 50 percent. One reason for the creation of the excess-cost model was to extend or clarify the federal supplement versus supplant rules.

Schoolwide projects were created in 1983 when districts were allowed to ignore Chapter 1 student-eligibility requirements in those schools where 75 percent or more of the students were from low-income families. However, few districts took advantage of this provision because they were required to pay a matching share for all students who were not eligible for Chapter 1 services. Effective in July 1988, Congress removed the matching fund requirement. Districts now have the opportunity to use

Chapter 1 funds and staff at schoolwide-project sites with complete flexibility (Lytle, 1988). In this way, Chapter 1 funds can be used to upgrade the entire educational program of the school. The effectiveness of this approach has yet to be adequately investigated.

In addition to these program designs, some campuses offer other compensatory instructional services funded entirely with state compensatory funds and local funds. Typically, the lowest performing students will be served with Chapter 1 funds in order to comply with federal and state regulations. Other students in need of remediation will then be identified and served according to the specific district or campuses' program offerings. The program designs adopted by the seven campuses in this study will illustrate the range of settings and approaches used in implementing compensatory programs.

WATERLOO ELEMENTARY

Waterloo Elementary is one of the 13 campuses that has implemented a Chapter 1 schoolwide project as one of the district's 16 priority schools. Three of the schoolwide projects are funded by state compensatory funds. Priority schools have smaller classes. Pupil-teacher ratios are 15:1 for grades pk-two, 18:1 for grades three and four and 20:1 for grades five and six. The priority schools also have all-day prekindergarten classes for four-year olds, special staff for counseling and social work, a campus-based parent training specialist and full-time librarians. All classes are self-contained and heterogeneously grouped. Students are grouped across ability levels that include special education and gifted/talented. There is no difference between federally funded and other classes. Students are provided with tutorials or additional remedial, advanced, or bilingual materials as needed. The school's management is guided by the district's "Plan for Educational Excellence" that is based on the effective schools model.

MOCKINGBIRD ELEMENTARY

Mockingbird Elementary offers two compensatory programs, Chapter 1 and Elementary Basic Skills. The Chapter 1 program design includes extended day for bilingual kindergarten students, send-in into a Chapter 1 computer/instructional laboratory for 30 minutes in grades one through five and send-in aides for bilingual students in grades one through three. The program also includes a Chapter 1 six-weeks summer reading program. The compensatory elementary basic skills program for at-risk students is designed as both a send-in and pull-out program with supplemental teachers or aides for language arts or mathematics supplemental reinforcement. Chapter 2 funds are used to support a summer program in reading and mathematics.

Regular classes are self-contained and heterogeneously grouped. One class at each level in grades one through three is bilingual. An ESL teacher pulls out students in grades one through five for instruction. Two sections of pre-kindergarten are offered for limited English proficient and low socioeconomic status students.

All teachers, both special population and regular, follow objective-based curriculum and they coordinate closely so that supplemental instruction reinforces skills taught in the regular classroom.

ALAMO ELEMENTARY

Chapter 1 funding provides a full-time paraprofessional to work directly with Chapter 1 students in pre-kindergarten classes. Part-time send-in paraprofessionals are provided to assist Chapter 1 students as needed in grades kindergarten through six.

Students in grades two through five are pulled out to a Prescription Learning computer-assisted learning laboratory for a minimum of 90 minutes weekly to work on prescriptive lessons based on needs determined by diagnostic tests. Accurate records of mastery are maintained for each student in the management system of this computer laboratory.

Students that meet pre-determined criteria and that are recommended by their respective teachers participate in an extended year program in grades one, two, and three. These students are provided six additional weeks of instruction at the end of the school year, funded with Chapter 1 funds. This additional week of instruction allows for a slower pace in the teaching of the essential elements. Parental signatures are required at the beginning of the school year acknowledging the necessity of the additional six weeks of instruction.

Chapter 1 personnel are integrated into every aspect of the campus. For example, they participate in the development of the campus plan and incentive programs. Clothing, optical services, and medical services are provided to qualified Chapter 1 students.

LONE STAR ELEMENTARY

The design of this program is based upon a combination of the self-contained excess-cost model and the use of a certified teacher with a Chapter 1/Migrant aide in a class for the entire school day. Under the excess-cost model, students who qualify for Chapter 1 or Migrant services are placed into half-sized classes for all instructional programs. Class size is limited to half of a regular class, which results in a student teacher ratio of 11:1. Due to space limitations and the number of students needing services, the district also uses a certified teacher, funded through state and local funds, in a regular size classroom. All students in classes that use an aide qualify for both the bilingual program and the Chapter 1/Migrant program. The teachers of these students are paired with a bilingual aide for classroom instruction. This provides for an adult to student ratio of 11:1, the same achieved with an excess-cost model.

PECAN ELEMENTARY

Two compensatory programs are offered on the Pecan Elementary campus—a Basic Educational Skills Program and a Chapter 1 program. Students in grades 3-5 are served in the Basic Educational Skills Program and students in grades 1-4 are served in the Chapter 1 program. At grades 1-2, students are served through a 30 minute pull-out program in reading and/or mathematics. At grades 3-5, students are served through a 60 minute pull-out program in language arts and/or mathematics. In this program, in contrast to most pull-out programs, the teacher who instructs the student during the pull-out period also grades the student each six weeks in the subject area of instruction.

SOUTHERN ELEMENTARY

Compensatory programs of two types are maintained at Southern Elementary. Grades 1-3 are served in a pull-out program for reading only. In grades 4-6, students attend reading and mathematics classes with students enrolled in the regular program. The campus is departmentalized and an aide assists students enrolled in Chapter 1. Compensatory mathematics also uses an aide to provide remedial assistance. At the third grade level, compensatory mathematics is provided by the regular teacher with the assistance of an aide.

BLUEBONNET ELEMENTARY

Three program designs are implemented at the Bluebonnet campus. At the kindergarten level, an aide in the classroom provides computer-assisted instruction using reading and spelling software. The teacher provides direct instruction in reading and spelling skills. The computer software provides individual practice which reinforces daily lessons.

A matching teacher excess-cost model is used in grades one through three. Each teacher is responsible for approximately 11 students in a self-contained classroom setting. The teachers use a variety of strategies and materials based upon individual student learning styles. Grades four and five are served through the use of a send-in aide that provides reinforcement of reading/language arts skills for 30 to 45 minutes and 25 minutes in mathematics each day.

Teachers, aides, and administrators meet and plan regularly for instructional improvement. Campus-based inservice activities are planned by the staff. Teachers use consultant services provided by the district Chapter 1 staff. Parents are actively involved with the educational program through special seminars and volunteer activities.

COORDINATION BETWEEN THE REGULAR PROGRAM AND THE COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAM

Regardless of the program design used for delivering compensatory services, staff on all campuses emphasized the importance of maintaining coordination between the instructional content, strategies, and materials. Each campus had developed a system compatible to their particular program design. The following are examples of ways the schools coordinate and communicate in their compensatory education programs.

- Weekly grade level meetings that provide a forum for the staff members to exchange and discuss ideas (Attendance ensures the staff that they will all receive the same information at the same time.)
- Joint planning time for each grade level
- District-wide curriculum guides and regular meetings with the district curriculum director
- Formal and informal meetings between the regular teacher and the compensatory teacher to determine if the students are on schedule

Since the pull-out program design requires the most coordination, extra effort is invested in maintaining consistency for the student. For example, developing joint lesson plans may be a useful strategy.

> The compensatory education teachers review and discuss the regular teacher's lesson plans on a regular basis. The compensatory education teachers then prepare their lesson plans based on the regular teacher's. The teachers have a lot of interaction. The compensatory teachers have access to the regular teachers during their planning time in order to coordinate lesson plans.
>
> *Principal*

This section has provided an overview of the most common compensatory education program designs and a brief overview of the program designs implemented by the seven campuses in the study. Given the small number of campuses included in the study, a reasonably wide range of program designs were represented. Except for the Waterloo Elementary schoolwide program, all campuses were found to use two or more settings to deliver compensatory services (for example, pull-out, send-in). The development of each program design was based on the district's belief that their particular design is most effective in serving the types of students enrolled in the program. The next section will discuss the roles of the principal and program coordinator in the administration of effective compensatory education program.

ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND PROGRAM COORDINATOR

This section provides a description of the roles of the principal and the program coordinator in an effective compensatory program. During the interviews about the principal's role as campus leader, there was considerable overlap in the administrative practices that relate primarily to the compensatory program and those that provide leadership to the entire campus. For example, compensatory teachers discussed how the principal's overall campus leadership promoted a positive climate on the campus that made it possible for them to be effective teachers. However, the focus of this section will be upon administrative practices that relate primarily to the compensatory program. A second component of compensatory program administration to be discussed includes the development of policy for selecting students, exiting the students from the program, and promoting or retaining students.

Specific practices described by teachers and principals most relevant to compensatory programs included defining the compensatory program as an integral part of the school, ensuring coordination between the regular program and the compensatory program, promoting communication among teachers and between teachers and the principal, and fostering a sense of teamwork among all the staff on the campus.

Two of those interviewed described how their role as principal encompassed considerably more than serving as campus leader and maintaining the focus upon instruction while the children have so many other needs.

> As I have more experience, the definition of my role keeps broadening. The definition gets broader because the activities one gets involved in are more varied. The decisions one has to make are different than what they once were. The principal's role is to provide leadership for instruction. Schools take on a lot of problems that schools shouldn't take on. Schools are first about teaching and learning. The one thing that has to be first for principals is instruction. The principal needs to support, help, and empower the teachers. Listen to them, give them positive feedback, and lead them. As long as you keep the leadership focused on instruction first, the learning will take place. That's the first thing principals are about.

The second principal:

> It would be easy to become a social worker. Look around and see all the unmet needs they have, for clothing, love, and affection. I try to fulfill as many of those unmet needs as I can. The staff as a whole feels that way. We have a clothes box downstairs for a child if they need it. But we have to constantly keep before us that the main reason we're here is to teach basic skills. To accept that as our primary responsibility and to be successful at it and doing it in an atmosphere of love and concern for the students' individual needs is what's important.

One of the most nebulous characteristics of an effective compensatory education program (or any other program) is the development of a positive school climate. This is related to the philosophy of the program and the ways that the philosophy is translated into practice. Although it may not be possible to differentiate the practices which specifically contribute to a positive school climate, a third grade teacher described her perceptions of how the principal's approach to management created a positive environment.

> The principal's very supportive of the teachers and of the implementation of programs. He's very good about greeting the teachers and students every morning. He also focuses on student achievement. He involves teachers in the goal writing process. He requires the teachers to show him the performance level of each child and where they expect the child to be at the end of the year. He monitors report cards and makes suggestions as to how to improve them. He has high expectations of his teachers. When teachers go to inservices and they want to implement a program, he gives them the freedom to do that. He doesn't dictate what we do. We're pretty free to implement the programs we want to.

From one principal's point of view, a positive school climate is something that he can identify simply by walking into the school cafeteria.

> When I walk into the school cafeteria as principal, two things should happen: First, the noise level should drop a little bit because they know I expect them to talk quietly. But also, there should be some smiles on their faces; some hands reaching out; someone with a story they've got to tell me about a frog in their classroom. There should be some openness also. Because if all I see is fear and they all get quiet and stare at their plates, then I'm not doing a good job either. On the other hand, if I walk in and they keep on talking loudly, then I don't have their respect. There's a balance there. Just like a teacher has to maintain in the classroom.

Another way administrators effect a positive environment is by conveying the message that the compensatory program is important. For example, one teacher commented upon the way the principal made Chapter 1 a priority while scheduling the classes on the campus. "While on many campuses, Chapter 1 gets put wherever it works out, that is not true here. She blocked all reading and math at all grade levels so Chapter 1 could schedule around them. That's unusual. She demonstrated leadership in compensatory education to do that."

A common criticism of compensatory programs that use pull-out designs is the lack of coordination between the regular program and the compensatory program. Although this is partly the responsibility of the program coordinator, one coordinator thought that the principal could handle this job best.

> Providing everyday support for the compensatory program is something that is best done by the principal. The principal is the leader who has to ensure that there is coordination among the different programs. If the principal assumes that this is going to happen but doesn't provide the mechanisms for it to take place, it will harm the program. There has to be the ongoing curriculum match and the ongoing match between the compensatory and regular teachers to make sure they're teaching the same skills or concept.

Staff members described their campus principals as being successful in maintaining open communication with their staff and among the staff members themselves.

> One way she fosters communication is by arranging inner and inter grade level meetings. We share the beneficial components of our own programs. Conference time is also provided at the end of each day to share ideas. We have weekly grade level meetings and other meetings as needed.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

Teachers also felt that they could share their concerns with the principals and depend upon their support.

> When I have a problem with a student, not functioning well in the classroom or having a behavior problem, I can talk to my principal. She always listens and tries to think of something that might help. She does a good job of sharing data with us about the campus and suggests strategies for improving weak areas. She also gets the materials we need.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

The teachers and principals argued that one of the most important ways that the principal demonstrated leadership was by developing the team approach to the day-to-day campus activities by establishing the decision-making process. The teachers generally perceived the principal as a partner and colleague, not just as an authority figure who made the decisions and directed the staff to implement them. One principal's definition of her role differed from the other principals in that she disagreed with the idea of the principal as the instructional leader.

> There's got to be a team of instructional leaders. There's no such thing as a principal being the only instructional leader. It has to be a team. If principals would just understand that. It takes away a lot of the stress and tension when you have a team to solve a problem.

The program coordinator provided administrative support in two primary areas. The first included making decisions for the entire district. They were responsible for determining the program design to be implemented on each campus; therefore, they must be familiar with federal and state funding guidelines. On one campus, the program coordinator's efforts resulted in Chapter 1 funds being used to extend the kindergarten day and to provide Spanish-speaking aides in Chapter 1 classrooms. Another responsibility was to ensure coordination among special programs, such as bilingual education and the compensatory program and between these programs and the regular program.

The coordinator's second primary function was to provide support to the classroom teacher. Coordinators planned teacher inservice training, observed in the classroom, and gave the teachers feedback, coordinated parent meetings, purchased equipment for the classroom, and provided other resources. The next section will discuss policies and practices related to student identification, exiting students from the program, and promotion/retention policies.

PROGRAM POLICIES

Three policies are directly related to the administration of an effective compensatory education program: identifying and placing students appropriately for the program; making certain that students performing on grade level are exited from the program; and developing and implementing processes for student promotion and retention policies. This section describes the ways these policies are implemented on the campuses visited.

STUDENT IDENTIFICATION

Once districts have selected their Chapter 1 project schools, they must select program participants based on procedures established in the law. Districts may choose from a number of information sources when deciding how to identify eligible students. These sources include data from nationally standardized tests or from state or locally developed tests, results from informal diagnoses, academic records, and observations from professional staff.

Districts have considerable discretion in determining cutoff score(s) as well as other criteria they use to determine students' eligibility for Chapter 1 services. Whatever criteria are chosen, districts may choose to serve all eligible students, or they may elect to serve only a portion of this group as long as those selected include those in "greatest need" (U.S. Department of Education, 1987). However, there are no such student identification criteria for state-funded compensatory education programs. Although state compensatory funds are allocated to districts on the basis of the number of students participating in the federal free and reduced price lunch program, these economically disadvantaged students are not necessarily served in compensatory programs. In fact, only 55-60% of the compensatory students studied in Phase II of this evaluation were eligible for the free and reduced price lunch program.

All seven campuses reported using multiple criteria for selecting students to be served. Achievement test scores, teacher recommendations, TEAMS scores, and poor attendance were all factors taken into consideration in placing a student in a compensatory program. Student selection is not a consideration for the Waterloo Elementary campus since it is a schoolwide program.

Campuses varied in their selection of a cutoff score on standardized tests used to place students in the program. For example, one campus first selected the students who had scored at or below the 23rd percentile and then continued the selection with students who had scored between the 24th and 40th percentile until the program was filled. The most common criterion among all campuses was to place students who scored below the 40th percentile into the program.

District staff were asked to respond to the question, "As a general practice, do students enrolled in a compensatory program remain in the program the entire year?" Generally, students enrolled in the compensatory program were found to remain in the program the entire year. However, exceptions were made for students who were obviously misplaced into the program because of questionable test scores or other procedures resulting in misidentification.

EXITING STUDENTS FROM THE PROGRAM

Findings from Phase II indicated that statewide exit rates from the elementary compensatory programs were approximately 30 percent per year. Among the campuses visited for this study, exit from the program was found to be based upon multiple criterion. The,most commonly reported criteria reported included scores above the 40th-45th percentile on standardized tests and teacher recommendations. Monitoring performance for a period of two years after a student exited the program was a common practice. If a student who had exited from the program began to perform poorly in the regular program, all campuses reported that the staff conducted a thorough review of the student's program, test scores, grades, and teacher recommendations. The most common alternatives to placing the student back into compensatory education included placement into a bilingual program or special education program, modifying instruction in the regular classroom, or providing additional tutorial instruction.

PROMOTION AND RETENTION

Research of promotion and retention issues indicates that retention does not necessarily benefit students. Repeating classes that are often taught in the same manner may not result in increased student performance. Early identification of students who are at risk of being retained is essential to effective intervention. An important factor in early intervention programs is parent notification and involvement. Lowering the retention rates is a desirable goal, although for some students retention may be an appropriate approach.

In a study of grade retention in the Austin school district, Baenan (1988) concluded that most students do not benefit from being retained, the number of students retained can be reduced, and the effectiveness of interventions needs further study. As an alternative to retention, she recommends placement into the next grade level with special help. Special help may include compensatory programs, transition classes, special education, tutoring, or summer school.

Findings from Phase II indicated that promotion rates for first grade students in the compensatory program were significantly lower than for students in regular education classes. It may be a commonly accepted practice to retain compensatory students in the first grade to allow them to "catch up" and be better prepared the next year. However, as just noted, other studies provide considerable evidence that indicates lack of long-term success in most cases of retention. Promotion rates were lower at all grade levels for students in compensatory programs.

As presented in Table 2 of this report, all campuses in this study were found to have reasonably high promotion rates. In general, only one campus reported retention at the kindergarten level. Retentions at the first grade level were more than double the retention rates at other grade levels.

While there was some variation in the promotion policies of the campuses visited, the underlying principle regarding promotion and retention policies was, "What will be the most beneficial to the child?" Criteria for promotion from the first grade included mastering 70 percent of the essential elements and reading on grade level. Students unable to meet these criteria were often enrolled in extended-year classes or summer school classes and received tutorial assistance. For students still considered for retention at the end of the summer school session, an extensive review of the student's academic performance, maturity level, behavior, and self-concept was undertaken with extensive parental involvement. A third grade teacher describes the process on her campus in this way.

> All kindergarten students on this campus are promoted. We look at first grade students on an individual basis. Personally, I do not believe in retention. I think retention serves very little purpose. But if we feel like a child needs to be retained, it is a whole process. We contact parents, meet with the principal, try alternative strategies, modify the curriculum. It is a very serious decision here. We try to keep retention to a minimum. For students who fail, the curriculum is modified. If a child is retained or has failed a grade level he or she is put with a different teacher, maybe in a different setting, a different teaching style. Tutorials are given. Parents are given training and counseling. Contact is made three or four times with a parent.

This section included descriptions of several policies considered to be important for offering an effective compensatory education program. The following section includes a discussion of data related to the qualifications and characteristics of effective compensatory education teachers.

TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

This section includes presentations of data related to the qualifications of teachers in the compensatory program and discussion of characteristics considered to be important to successful teaching. Participants in the study were requested to describe the qualifications of their compensatory education teachers. Principals, program coordinators, and teachers were asked to respond to questions that compared the qualifications of the compensatory teachers with the qualifications the regular program teachers. They were also asked to describe the characteristics of an effective compensatory education teacher.

Data reported on the campus data collection instrument indicated that principals perceived the compensatory education teachers to be at least as qualified as other staff on the campus. This question was not relevant for the Waterloo Elementary campus, since it is a schoolwide project. The remaining six campuses reported 55 teachers who were considered to be compensatory education teachers. Of the 55 teachers, 37 were on the career ladder and an additional six were scheduled to be on step one during the 1989-90 school year. Eleven of the 55 were reported to have earned advanced degrees, and eight or more are enrolled in a graduate program. While comparable data for all teachers on each campus was not collected, all of the campuses reported that based upon these two criterion, compensatory education teachers were at least, if not more qualified than other teachers on the campus.

In addition to being qualified in terms of having the proper certification and educational background, principals, program coordinators, and teachers identified a number of characteristics they thought were important to becoming an effective teacher in a compensatory program. The first set of characteristics related to having a positive attitude and a positive approach to teaching students who may be one or more years behind grade level. This set included setting high expectations for the students, being motivated to work toward building students' self-esteem, being patient, believing that all children can learn, and being willing to take the initiative to meet the individual needs of each student.

> We want to know how the teachers work with children who are below grade level. We have many different ways we question to get to that basic philosophy. Do they really believe it? Are they coming to that classroom with the determination that they're going to teach every child and that every child is going to learn? They're not just responsible for the teaching, they're responsible for the learning in that classroom. It's how that teacher interacts with those students and deals with their self-concept that makes a difference.
>
> *Program Coordinator*

The second set of characteristics was related to teaching skills. These characteristics included being able to adapt their teaching strategies to the students' learning styles, knowing the subject area being taught, and being able to diagnose students' academic strengths and weaknesses. Because of the design of most programs, it was also considered important to be able to coordinate lessons and materials with the other teachers on the campus. One principal commented that when hiring a compensatory teacher, "I want teachers who have a sound knowledge of how to analyze a learning situation and how to determine what it is that the child needs. They must be able to teach task analysis—the building block approach."

This section included information regarding the importance of having qualified teachers to implement an effective compensatory education program and has presented some of the characteristics considered necessary to teaching low performing students. The following section includes a discussion of curriculum and instructional methods used by the campuses visited.

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

For purposes of this study, curriculum is defined as the content that is to be mastered by the learner and instruction is defined as the procedures that are used to organize and present this content to promote effective learning. This section provides an overview of the instructional approaches used in the compensatory program on the campuses visited and presents examples of methods teachers reported as effective in presenting material. Topics included in this discussion include common instructional approaches, essential element mastery, student assessment, tutorials, instructional aides, and computers and technology.

An issue related to curriculum and instruction is class size. Generally, administrators favor larger-sized classrooms because higher pupil-to-teacher ratios cost less (fewer teachers and facilities are needed) and management difficulties are lessened. Teachers, on the other hand, prefer smaller classrooms because having fewer students allows for more individualized attention and reduces classroom management problems. As noted in Part I of this report, the average class size for campuses in this study ranges from 15 to 22 students. However, within the compensatory program, class size varied from 5 to 22 students per class. Even though few teachers reported that having too large a classroom interfered with their ability to teach, teachers in programs with smaller classes reported a number of reasons that the smaller class size was important.

> With a lower pupil/teacher ratio, you are able to constantly monitor the children. With only seventeen kids to a class, you can constantly see how a child is responding to a problem ... there's more interaction because you can call on every child during every lesson. It allows more individualized attention. You can't do that in the regular classroom. We keep them on task and focused.
>
> *Fourth Grade Teacher*

The assessment of the importance of class size is beyond the scope of this study. Other studies on class size have produced mixed results, and few have assessed the impact of class size in a compensatory program. The topic is only briefly considered in this report because future research may be required to investigate how class size is related to the effectiveness of program practices that may be affected by the size of the classroom.

INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

The use of multiple instructional approaches was reported in the programs visited. The interview data confirmed that numerous approaches are used by most, if not all, teachers interviewed. The teachers were asked, "What instructional approaches are used in your compensatory classroom?". Responses included direct instruction, drill and practice, individualized instruction, modeling, demonstration, teacher-guided practice, manipulatives, large group instruction, peer tutoring, small group activities, the discovery method, problem-solving techniques, and different types of multi-sensory instruction. In short, teachers reported using any approach they perceived to help students learn. Repetition, reteaching, and recitation were common elements of most compensatory instruction. Regardless of the instructional approach taken, however, the majority of the teachers interviewed thought it important to modify the lessons and materials for compensatory students.

> We take the regular curriculum and we modify it for children who have fallen behind. If a child in third grade comes to me and cannot add or subtract based upon a lack of ability with the addition or subtraction facts, I need to take the regular curriculum and modify it. I take the kid back and

> have some materials on the shelf so that while I'm doing other things the child can go back and work on his own pace to master those things but continue toward the same goal. That is, so that the child won't spend the whole year adding and subtracting like they should have at the first or second grade level, they do that in the third grade and get back on track at the third grade level.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

The teachers interviewed reported that direct instruction and drill and practice were frequently used instructional approaches. In a review of effective compensatory reading instruction, Allington (1987) recommends that instruction should involve as much direct teaching as can be packed into the time available. He notes that other studies have found that classroom teachers offer little explicit teaching of either comprehension or word analysis skills and strategies during classroom reading instruction. Direct teaching seems primarily to involve explanation and modeling of the skills and strategies necessary to develop reading proficiency.

Drill is a methodical repetition of knowledge or behavior. Both research and experience have confirmed the value of appropriate drill in elementary school mathematics. However, another finding from the research literature clearly states the superiority of meaningful instruction over rote instruction for long-term retention of mathematics. Learning derived primarily from rote memorization may develop more efficiently, but that advantage disappears with time. However, "while drill is not a preferred way of learning mathematics, it can be an excellent way to consolidate mathematical learning—provided understanding comes first" (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, (Undated publication:69). A third grade teacher describes her use of direct instruction and drill and practice as follows:

> I constantly try to stay on the subject. You can't teach it once and move away from it. You must teach it, teach it, teach it, until they grasp it. I use direct instruction and we do a lot of drill and practice—orally and written. Any type we do, practice or drill, we go over it orally before we do it on paper. Then when I see they can handle it successfully, we do it on paper, step-by-step. I check their answer to each question as they do it, step-by-step. You know exactly what they're missing, then you stop and reteach.

Another type of instruction often reported was individualized instruction. Individualized instruction is a type of teaching in which the teacher gives careful consideration to the individual learner. Examples include guided independent study which permits pupils to work at their own pace under the guidance of a teacher and diversified-activity individualization which allows the pupil to repeat activities using multiple materials or experiences until he demonstrates mastery. In practice, this approach translates to "teaching the way the child learns best." One second grade teacher commented:

> Some children are not phonetic learners. It's like music—some just don't have the phonetic ear. The regular teacher has used phonics and it didn't work, so why should I pour more down his throat? I use a different teaching modality to meet that child's needs. That is what I mean by individualized instruction.

Research literature identifies cooperative learning as another instructional approach that has been effectively used with compensatory education students. In cooperative learning situations there is a positive interdependence among students' goal attainments. Students seek outcomes that are beneficial to all those with whom they are cooperatively linked. Students discuss the material with each other, help one another understand it, and encourage each other to work hard (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec 1986:4). A third grade teacher describes her use of cooperative learning in this way.

> One of the things that makes a difference in our program is a basic understanding that in any approach we take we use a child-centered, active learner approach. All children are actively involved in what they're doing—that's basic. We maximize the role of the child. My role is to guide the child . . . be a facilitator. We use cooperative group learning a lot. We teach the children to work in a small group. I see myself working as a facilitator and a guide. When you give the child more of an active role, then the child assumes a lot of responsibility for self-education.

The multi-sensory approach to teaching was also reported by some of the teachers. The model adopted by these teachers is the Exemplary Center For Reading Instruction Model (ECRI). This approach uses all modalities to teach children. If a child is working on a visual task, auditory cues are given; if a auditory task is being taught, visual cues are given.

> I've been through the ECRI training reading instruction, and I use that in almost all my lessons—especially in reading and vocabulary development and spelling. It's a multi-sensory approach that is really beneficial. Even the higher achieving kids learn faster with this method. They're reading, touching, and speaking. It's very structured, and the structure benefits low achievers.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

The program coordinator in another district describes how multi-sensory instruction has been combined with other approaches in their compensatory program.

> It's not difficult for a compensatory teacher to get hung-up on directing instruction toward developing skills. We're walking a fine line when we use multi-sensory instruction and children's literature to teach the students while in the back of our minds we continue to emphasize teaching skills. Children's literature can motivate students while they're being taught a skill, and at the same time, increase their interest in reading. We integrate skill instruction using the multi-sensory approach and children's literature.

A kindergarten teacher described how the use of this approach contributed to teaching a child the alphabet.

> I stay away from paper and pencil and use different learning modalities—more visual—tracing or touching and feeling. With the little ones, if they're having trouble with a letter, I trace it on their backs. I'll never forget this little kindergartner last year. I showed him a big card with the number four and he couldn't figure it out. So I held it up to him and he traced it. Then I asked how he knew it was the number four and he said, "My finger knew it." These are the ones that get lost in the regular classroom because they're so overwhelmed if they have a motor skill problem and they get all these worksheets to do. I think we start building failure in these kids. I use a wide variety of instructional approaches.

This section has contained descriptions of several of the instructional approaches reported to be commonly used in the compensatory programs visited. Regardless of the approach used, teachers reported varying their teaching techniques to meet the individual needs of the child. If teachers are not successfully teaching a lesson one way, they reteach in a different format. As one teacher commented, "If you use different modalities with these kids, you'll discover a lot the regular classroom teacher didn't know!"

Even the classroom arrangement is a factor.

> Within my class, it's important how they're seated. My students are seated in a "U." Students that have problems with language arts are on one side and those with math problems are on the other and students I have to keep focused are in the center. If a student has a problem in language arts and I'm reteaching that student, the students around him hear it and benefit. It helps accommodate those students. But the students don't realize why they're seated that way—I don't want them to stand out.
>
> *Second Grade Teacher*

ESSENTIAL ELEMENT MASTERY

In the previous section examples of instructional approaches used in the compensatory program emphasized the need to use a variety of approaches in instruction. In this section, issues are discussed that specifically relate to essential element instruction. Data for this section were gathered in response to four questions:

1. Is instruction provided in all essential elements?
2. Is instruction provided at the student's functional level or at the grade level the student is placed into?
3. Are materials and activities available to teachers if functional level instruction is carried out?
4. Does instruction in the compensatory education program go beyond the essential elements?

Essential elements have become the framework for curriculum development in all Texas school districts. Staff members interviewed in this study reported that the essential elements were coded into the lesson plans and cross-referenced in curricular documents. They were also closely identified with the development of the district's scope and sequence. Although following the essential elements is emphasized in all compensatory instruction, staff members reported making efforts to extend the basic curriculum whenever time allowed. Some educators criticize the essential elements because the requirements are for basic skill development with no emphasis on critical thinking skills. The discrepancy between TEAMS scores and achievement test scores, reported in Part I of this study, could be used as evidence of this shortcoming in the application of the essential elements or an overemphasis on TEAMS.

Teachers reported that the first steps to ensure mastery of the essential elements for compensatory students are diagnosis, appropriate placement in grade level and classroom, and appropriate grouping within the classroom (for those programs using homogeneous grouping). A common practice was to administer reading and mathematics inventories at the beginning of the school year if there was any question as to where the student should be placed. These inventories were combined with other information such as teacher recommendations and TEAMS scores to ensure proper placement.

Regardless of the approach to instruction, all teachers reported having sufficient materials available for all students at all instructional levels in the program. Some districts maintain Chapter 1 resource centers for this purpose to supplement district materials.

In determining whether to instruct at the functional level or at the grade level the student is placed into, all districts reported doing both, in slightly different ways. The approaches reported included teaching the students at grade level and serving their functional level through additional instruction in tutorials, individualized instruction in the classroom, additional time for finishing an assignment, or modification of materials. Some programs used a combination of two or more methods of teaching at the functional level. One principal described the approach taken on his campus to serve the students at grade level and functional level.

> One of the things we have found is that it is possible to do both. That doesn't mean you need twice as much time. I can think of one fourth grade teacher in particular who, with children who are performing at a lower level, will introduce the lesson to all the children, including the ones a couple of years below grade level. The concept or elements may change a little bit from grade level to grade level but a lot of the same skills or concepts are reinforced, grade level after grade level. For example, two fourth grade kids are below grade level (maybe at second grade level, maybe third), and the teacher introduces a lesson to the whole group. Then she is able to pull those two over to the side and work with them or give them extra help. Then we're able to cover the elements at the fourth grade. We try to teach the child everything he should be receiving at the fourth grade, and at the same time, provide instruction at his functional level through small group, computers, centers, or tutorial instruction. It is a lot of work, but we take it seriously. The kids require a lot of time, a lot of planning, and materials you may have to make on your own.

A third grade teacher provides an example of how she works with students who are below grade level.

> One of the things I do is to combine the second and third grade book and do them together. Being on grade level has a great psychological advantage for these students. I drop back and use below grade level materials to introduce the skill, then use third grade level materials to reinforce it. I'm always telling them about the swimming pool. When you learn how to swim you first get into the wading pool. Today we're going to get into the wading pool and learn about this. Tomorrow we're going to get in the water a little deeper, so listen carefully. The next day we're going to get into the deep end of the pool so you have to be sharp today. The next day we're going off the diving board, so you better be on your toes. That way they can relate their learning to where we are.

One reason given for not choosing to teach students at their functional level is concern that this approach tends to lower expectations for the student. Staff on the Waterloo Elementary campus have adopted the Language Arts Mastery Program (LAMP) reading program because it trains teachers to take the on-grade level material and teach it in a way that brings the students up so the expectations are not lowered.

All campuses reported going beyond the essential elements in instruction. This was accomplished by using a wide range of approaches. Providing enrichment activities is considered an important part of the program because "They come to us with such limited experiences and information—we have to spend a great deal of time teaching things such as listening skills, manners, courtesy, respect for each other and authority, self-esteem, and most socialization skills." Field trips, bringing speakers onto the campus, and art and music classes are all considered an important dimension of children's learning. In addition, some campuses focus on teaching about the culture(s) in the school and the community.

> We did a unit on American Indians that wasn't in the curriculum. We focus on Black history and Africa. We do a lot of Spanish heritage work in May. There's also a heavy emphasis on science. We have a science fair every year and all students are required to participate. Our writing program goes beyond the essential elements and so do many of our computer activities.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

In addition to providing enrichment activities, staff reported instructing students in higher order thinking skills whenever possible. One model adopted was Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (1956). This model provides a taxonomy of intended (goal) behaviors. "Intended behaviors" are units that consist of a stated problem and a correct response. The aim of this model was to provide a comprehensive taxonomy that would reflect levels of thought in teachers. Six levels of behavior were delineated. These are knowledge (interpreted as recall), comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. These levels are assumed to possess a cumulative, hierarchical structure increasing in complexity. A sixth grade teacher explains the importance of describing the process to the students as they are being instructed.

> We will let the students know—this is an evaluation question, this is a judgment question. This is what you're thinking when you're doing an evaluation. This is what you're doing when you're doing an analysis. We try to make the children really aware of what a higher order thinking skill is — making the students aware of the process makes it easier for them.

A number of methods were reported to be used to improve students higher-order thinking skills. Many of the approaches were the same as those used in the gifted/talented program on the campus. While gifted students will respond to the use of these approaches differently than a student in the compensatory program, teachers thought that all students should be exposed to them and have the opportunity to work on them. Some strategies used in compensatory education to elicit higher order thinking skills included: questioning techniques, research projects, creative writing, journal writing, and cooperative learning. A teacher provided an example of how she incorporates higher-level strategies into the compensatory classes.

> I do a lot of higher-level thinking skill instruction through the students' special interests. I try to find things that will motivate each individual student. It may be a book about bicycling or skateboarding. I'll develop higher-order skills in that area and from there I can carry it into the classroom. It takes a lot of time in planning and knowing your students and their special interests and needs. You find that you can motivate each student in their own unique way. I do a lot of it in their composition. That challenges them to learn more about what they're interested in and go to higher levels.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

A second way teachers reported going beyond the essential elements in the compensatory program is through extending the lessons.

> When I find a concept they catch on to, I extend it to the next level—using skills in another way. For instance, in my room we begin by learning vocabulary words and then drill by making their own word cards. Then we go on to story writing and illustrating the story, and afterwards possibly combining all of the stories into a book.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

In addition to teaching higher-order thinking skills to expose students to new ways of thinking, teachers reported that students will learn the essential elements more quickly when instructional approaches such as direct instruction are combined with higher-level questioning strategies. Even though they had limited time to focus on higher-order thinking skills, teachers attempted to use the questioning strategies and to extend the curriculum whenever possible. However, this may add to the teacher's work load, since most available remedial material does not address higher order thinking skills.

Staff also reported using a variety of methods specifically directed toward essential element mastery. Although a variety of approaches and teaching methods were reported to be used, an underlying commonality among the campuses visited was that "Even though we're starting with the functional level, a conscious effort is being made to push toward grade level—that's the reason for success on this campus." (Program Coordinator)

STUDENT ASSESSMENT

Many demands are placed upon teachers to assess different student characteristics, such as achievement, ability, and social characteristics. While charting these factors for individual students, they must maintain a sense of how the class as a whole is performing. Studies have indicated that classroom teachers spend 25-30 percent of their time evaluating their students' progress through tests, observation, or other learning activities. In addition to the concern that the evaluation process consumes a considerable amount of the teacher's time, another issue is raised: Do teachers know how to translate the data into something useful? In a study of 14 teacher education programs, it was found that only one institution required assessment training for its future teachers. As an increasing number of students are entering the public schools with a more diversified and wider range of abilities and achievements, the educator's role in assessing students using a variety of methods will become increasingly important (Stiggins, 1985). While attention has been focused on the development of standardized measures of achievement, a neglected area of study appears to be the evaluation of the various formal and informal assessment methods used daily by teachers in the classroom. Clearly, these are the assessments that have the greatest effect on classroom learning and students academic and personal self-concept.

Teachers reported eleven different methods used to assess the progress of students in their classes.

- TEAMS tests
- Standardized tests
- Teacher observation
- Teacher-made tests
- Computers (e.g. prescription learning labs)
- Homework
- Oral responses in classroom discussions
- District-made tests
- Quizzes
- Diagnostic tests
- Grades on daily assignments

One teacher described her assessment process in this way.

> I use teacher-made tests, and diagnostic tests to assess the student's level . . . teacher observation of classwork and oral discussion . . . and practice and pre-test TEAMS tests. When we have a test, I make a checklist of how many students have weaknesses in what areas. That's how I develop my remediation lesson plans and my objectives for my math and reading. We do pre-tests throughout the year—the basic skills are checked, taught, retested, taught again, retested, and so on. It's constant

> monitoring. Along with that, the students write things down that they think they need extra practice with and tape it to the side of their desks. When I go over an area where they need practice, the students put a check beside it on their list. They like knowing I'm teaching what they need.

Evaluating the accuracy and usefulness of the various approaches used by teachers in this study is beyond the study's scope. However, Stiggins (1985) has called for increased training for administrators and teachers in the area of classroom assessment. Potential benefits of such training are as follows:

- Communication channels will open to let teachers and administrators discuss issues that go beyond standardized test scores.
- Resources will be appropriated so that teachers can collaborate on assessment projects.
- Districtwide testing programs will be planned with an eye toward matching the cost of the program to its impact on student achievement or just improving its impact and usefulness to those in teaching and supervisory positions.
- Resources will be allocated to provide technical assistance to teachers in the development and use of classroom assessments.

TUTORIALS

Tutorials provide additional direct instruction as well as other assistance to students who are experiencing difficulty in the regular classroom. School districts are required to provide the students with opportunity to participate in tutorials at least twice a week for a minimum cumulative total of 90 minutes per week. The classroom teacher is primarily responsible for determining the student's need for tutorial services. Based on observations of the student's persistent difficulty in mastering classroom work, the teacher recommends tutorial sessions in the subject needed. Tutorials should provide students with intensive instructional assistance in classwork and homework assignments. The tutorial efforts should concentrate on the student's identified skill deficits and/or subject area weaknesses. As discussed in the section on essential element mastery, students are often instructed on grade level in the regular classroom and are tutored in or assigned to individual work at the functional level.

Students qualify for tutorial assistance during a six weeks' grading period if they receive a grade less than 70 in reading, mathematics, social studies, or science. Other students who are considered at-risk of failing may be recommended for tutoring by the classroom teacher. Generally, students attend tutorials for one or two six-week grading periods or until their grade average is raised to 75 or higher.

Tutorial instruction is supervised by a certified teacher; but tutorials may be implemented by a teacher, instructional aide, adult volunteer, or another student. Certified teachers most often tutor students in small groups; instructional aides, volunteers, or other students provide one-to-one instruction. Regardless of who is providing the instruction, coordination between the students' regular classroom instruction and their tutorial instruction is essential.

Tutorials were reported to effectively provide the support students need to keep from failing. One-to-one instruction was the most effective approach and in some cases, the only way to teach skills the students had not mastered.

> One little boy could not tell time. We presented it every way imaginable. We used our clocks and a big model on the board . . . we drew it. He just could not get it, until I sat down with him by himself

> and went over it and over it. Within 15 minutes he had it, but until I could talk to him by himself, he just could not understand. There is nothing to take the place of one-to-one instruction.
>
> *Second Grade Teacher*

Among the campuses visited, tutorials were offered at a variety of times. For example, one campus offered tutorials Monday through Friday from 8:15 until 8:35 a.m. by the student's regular classroom teacher. Another campus scheduled a remediation period during the day when the teacher worked with a small group of students, while other students in the class did enrichment activities.

Although teachers are available before or after school on an informal basis, most of the staff interviewed thought that tutorials provided during the school day were the most effective. They reported that students were tired at the end of the school day and that transportation could be a problem as well. A third grade teacher described some of the advantages of tutorials as follows:

> Tutorials do make a difference. Students master basic skills and work on higher skills. It's immediate. If there is a problem, it gets dealt with right away—not next week. Whenever I need to make adjustments because the students have not mastered, I make them. I'm teaching students—not a book or curriculum. That's very important. Tutorials during school are more beneficial. We have had after school tutorials but the students are tired and may feel they're being punished by staying after school.

Another reason for conducting tutorials immediately after the lesson is to maintain continuity for the student.

> With the tutorials, as with any instructional approach, you run the risk of becoming segmented and disconnected from what's going on. For example, a child is having a math lesson and fails to understand the concept. Your tutorial time is set for the end of the school day. The child then becomes disconnected. It's more meaningful to the child when you address the problem at the time.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

One of the more promising practices for providing tutorials is through the use of peer and cross-age tutoring. Peer and cross-age tutoring refer to an instructional method in which students in elementary and secondary school help each other learn. Peer tutoring refers to students helping classmates of their own age, and cross-age tutoring refers to older students helping younger ones.

In a paper reviewing the value of peer and cross-age tutoring, Hedin (1986) addresses the question of why an educational method of such demonstrated power is not more widely used and suggests some steps to increase its use. Hedin states that the tutors also benefit from the sessions by (1) enhancing their personal development, (2) learning or reviewing basic skills, (3) applying academic studies, and (4) developing insight into the learning process. The goal of most tutoring programs is to offer individualized, systematic, and structured learning experiences so that pupils can improve academic performance. This approach is based upon the behavioral learning theory that the best learning environment is one in which the materials are presented in appropriate order and correct responses are systematically monitored and rewarded. Two of the benefits received by the tutees are individualized instruction and enhanced personal and social development. Older students can often serve better as role models than the adult teachers, because they are closer to the younger students in age and experience.

Five of the seven campuses visited reported using either peer or cross-age tutoring as a part of the compensatory program. These approaches were implemented in various ways, depending on the unique situation on a campus or within a classroom. Examples of this implementation included sixth grade students tutoring lower grade level students, high school students coming to the school to tutor elementary students, and students within the class tutoring their peers. One benefit commented upon by a principal was as follows:

> When our sixth grade students go into the lower grades, so do the teachers. There's a certain climate that is different in the primary levels. The teacher can also see different strategies, different approaches. The other thing that helps is the teamwork—I want to stress that. That is something we have found to be very beneficial.

An example of how one campus implemented a cross-age tutoring program is described below.

> Our fifth grade students have adopted students in kindergarten and first grade. When we say "adopt" these older children go into the classroom and read with the children on an individual basis, or th[illegible] art work, or they look at any other work that the children have completed. This lets the fifth grade student know that he or she can help someone in our school community. The other benefit is letting them feel that he or she knows that they are helpful to other children in the school.
>
> *Principal*

On this same campus students enrolled in a science academy at a nearby high school came to work with the students on science projects. Sometimes the third grade students would go to the high school laboratory for exploration exercises. In addition, 15 high school students were paid to come to the elementary campus on a weekly basis. One teacher commented that "the tutors learn more than the students they're tutoring," a benefit of cross-age tutoring that is sometimes not recognized.

Two ways peer tutoring was implemented in the classroom were to have students with reading problems work with other students in the class on a regular basis and having the more advanced group within the class help a second group. Here is an example of how one fourth grade teacher used peer tutoring in the classroom.

> I have two reading groups. In one group are the better readers. I read a story. Then I'll pair a good reader with a poorer reader and let the second reader help the first with the difficult vocabulary and sentences. Or, I'll do a writing workshop, that is not direct instruction. It's based on the Graves approach to writing and the writing process. Students all work independently on writing projects, but they do a lot of peer tutoring because they get together and proof-read their writing. All is done within the same classroom.

Another teacher describes how peer tutoring can be a review process for some students and a tutorial for others.

> I do a lot of peer/cross-age tutoring because I have a split class. Today on the math lesson, the fourth grade students were on the review page for two-digit division. It's the first day for the third grade students to have it. I paired the fourth and third grade students. It works well and serves as a review for fourth grade students and tutoring for third grade students.

Teachers described the use of peer and cross-age tutoring as effective methods in improving student performance. One third grade teacher described how it was especially effective with a student with a low IQ.

> I use a lot of peer tutoring. I had a boy in my room who couldn't read a word; he came out of a class for emotionally disturbed students. He has an IQ of 71. He couldn't read anything; he didn't know the top of the page from the bottom. He didn't know where to go when he finished a sentence. At the end of the year, he could read out of a third grade reader—not well, but my other kids were eagerly helping him to sound out difficult words. When I was too busy, they helped him.

This section included descriptions of some of the methods used by campuses to implement tutorials for students in the compensatory education program. The next section will address the use of instructional assistants.

INSTRUCTIONAL ASSISTANTS

Six of the seven campuses in the study reported having instructional aides. The majority of the aides were funded through Chapter 1, but one campus reported that two aides were available for the entire campus. Generally, aides are support personnel who provide a way for students to receive small group instruction or one-to-one instruction after the teacher has presented the material. Aides also have other functions such as clerical duties, obtaining materials, grading papers, making bulletin boards, and taking students to the library to do research.

While six of the campuses reported using aides, very little data provided evidence of their effectiveness. The one district that no longer employs instructional aides reported that those positions had been eliminated from the district at all levels because of their ineffectiveness. Districts continuing to use aides reported two concerns: restricted use with Chapter 1 students and their level of competence in basic skills. A fourth grade teacher commented that:

> That's what I don't like about the Chapter 1 program. There are times when they say only the Chapter 1 students should do this or that. To me, that's not fair to the Chapter 1 students, and it's not fair to the rest of the students. I hate to think the rest of the class can't have help, too. If she's only helping Chapter 1 students, they are going to realize that she only helps them and not anyone else. That's our success—the Chapter 1 students don't know they are Chapter 1 students and no one else knows, either. That's a plus.

The program coordinator from another district described how they began to provide staff development for the aides when the staff realized that the aides were not sufficiently competent to be teaching.

> We have lots of tutors. When I took this position one of the compensatory education consultants came to me with a problem. She had listened to a tutor helping a student with math. They were trying to add fractions. The kid was trying to add $^{2}/_{3}$ and $^{1}/_{4}$. The tutor said, "Oh no, you can't do that—they have different bottoms." I said, "Well, there's productive, there's nonproductive, and there is counter-productive. We can't afford the last one." So I bought the Adult Basic Learning Examination, which is an adult achievement test, and we administered it to our paraprofessionals. More than 33 percent of our tutors didn't function at the fifth grade level either in math or reading. As a result, we've taken money from staff development and every Friday afternoon from 1:00 to 4:00 p.m. there's a workshop for our paraprofessionals taught by staff from the local universities. We have one on

> early childhood for our pre-kindergarten tutors. We have another dealing with how to teach reading and math. The tutors now say to me, "We're glad someone cares about us." This is the second year of the training program. Now the paraprofessionals are learning both skills and subject matter and learning how to teach.

Other districts reported that extensive training was provided for the instructional aides in August and follow-up training throughout the school year. Model teachers conducted demonstrations for the aides. However, only the one other district reported testing aides to determine skill levels. While the use of aides, (particularly in pull-out programs) is widespread, it is an area that has received little attention in the research literature. Given the resources allocated for their use, perhaps this is an area that deserves considerable attention.

COMPUTERS AND TECHNOLOGY

Computers have become an important factor in elementary school instruction. The number of computers in American elementary schools has increased substantially in the past fifteen years. The majority of schools now own them. Many Chapter 1 programs at the elementary school level use drill and practice and tutorial software to deliver compensatory education. Some programs are trying to develop higher-order thinking skills through the students' use of computers. Generally, computer-assisted instruction has had positive effects on the achievement of elementary school pupils (Kulik, Kulik, and Bangert-Downs, 1985). However, there has been concern about the use of computers in the compensatory program. As the disadvantaged population increases, funding may not keep pace and the computer resources may be spread too thinly to be effective (Bialo and Sivin, 1989).

Essentially, the research indicates that computer-assisted instruction is effective when the following conditions are met:

- When it is aimed at specific student-body groups such as low-achieving and high-achieving students
- When certain subject areas are selected (science and mathematics)
- When it is fully integrated into the regular classroom curriculum
- When the proper setting and scheduling is established (Fisher, 1983)

All seven campuses visited reported using computers in the compensatory education program. The staff most frequently reported that computers were used for drill and practice. Other computer uses included teaching phonics, critical thinking skills, and map reading skills. Computers are also used for preparing students to take TEAMS and achievement tests. Interactive video discs were used for testing students. The amount of time students spent working on computers varied, but typically students were spending 30 minutes two times each week. Supplemental time was provided as available, often as a reward.

One district reported implementing prescription learning laboratories. A second district planned to begin implementing this approach during the 1989-90 school year. In this approach the computer is used to test students on specific skills, score the tests, identify strengths and weaknesses, and prescribe exercises to address the deficiency. Once a student masters 80 percent of the skills, he or she moves to the next activity. The program coordinator in this district spoke positively about the program.

> We only use prescription labs at the elementary level. Last year, we did not have any kids who did not gain one or two grade level equivalents. Last year, an evaluation of these labs last year showed that Chapter 1 teachers had reported having no discipline problems. You'll see those kids rush to those labs, rush to the computers, and log on. They log on and it comes up right where they were yesterday and away we go. There's a lot of enthusiasm about this throughout the hierarchy of the district. Teachers are given three days training on using the computers. We have a consultant on 24 hour call for assistance. We also have ongoing training workshops available. All teachers have had training, but the emphasis has been on Chapter 1 teachers.

The principal of another campus thinks computers are important because the student acquires another learning style. He noted that "Children who don't do well in normal direct instruction love the computer. It's a valuable tool, and we're just beginning to see what it can do."

One strength of computer-assisted instruction is that it gives the teacher opportunity to individualize the instruction for the student.

> Reading laboratories work very well because they're short and interesting. Computers are used a lot for individualized lessons. These children will sit and make mistake after mistake in the regular classroom. If you're not on top of, it you can't help them. Many of these children have I.Q.'s of 70 and 80 so it takes many repetitions for them to learn something. By using the computers for fact drill and drill and practice I can keep them on task without a lot of repetitive errors.
>
> *Second and Fourth Grade Teacher*

Two other types of technology reported as being used in the compensatory program included scannable sheets for testing purposes and television. Teachers reported using scan sheets to improve students test-taking skills because "the kids now know how to bubble in without spending 20 minutes doing it, and the itemized printout also lets you know what to reteach."

Instructional television is being used on one campus.

> We have an institutional TV network on our campus, so we're able to program video on our TV in the library to the different TVs in our school. We use that often for instructional purposes. We take some of the Texas programs, the PBS National Geographic, whatever is pertinent to the topic being discussed. All grade levels have a TV accessible. The librarian puts on different tapes at different times of the day, and the teacher has the schedule. It's been very useful. TV can be an instructional tool. TV can be instructionally entertaining. It's not just fun. It's a source of getting very important information. Kids can see the other use of TV. We tell the parents what's showing weekly and what's good for the family and these reasons why.

This section has provided an overview of the ways computers and technology are used in the compensatory education program. Some programs were found to rely more heavily on the computer for instruction than others. All campuses, however, reported that computers must be integrated into the overall instructional program. The following section will discuss approaches to involving parents in the compensatory education program.

PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

The importance of parental involvement to the students' success in school has been well documented. For example, from the findings of a report by the National Committee for Students in Education, came the following conclusions (Henderson, 1988):

- The family provides the primary educational environment.
- Involving parents in their children's education improves student achievement.
- Parent involvement is most effective when it is comprehensive, long-lasting, and well-planned.
- The benefits are not confined to early childhood or the elementary level—strong effects come from involving parents continuously through high school.

Other studies have corroborated these findings (U.S. Department of Education, 1986A; McLaughlin and Shields, 1986, Rich, 1986) and have noted that schools that are successful in involving parents are successful because they work at it. Schools with high rates of poverty must often work even harder to involve parents. It has been found that parents of low-income students are less likely to participate in fund raising and other support activities, to maintain informal contact with the student's teacher, and to help students with their homework (U.S. Department of Education, 1987).

Early parental involvement requirements for Title I programs focused on the creation of district-wide and school-wide parent advisory councils (PACS). The Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (ECIA), which responded to a desire to ease unnecessarily prescriptive Federal requirements, eliminated the PAC provision. However, the provision requiring that programs be implemented in consultation with parents was maintained.

In 1986, the Department of Education issued Chapter 1 regulations that substantially enhanced parental involvement activities. Each district was required to adopt a written policy on parental involvement, and more emphasis was placed on the importance of direct parental involvement in their children's education. The 1988 reauthorization of Chapter 1 established six goals for parental involvement. These are as follows:

- Inform parents about the Chapter 1 program and its instructional objectives and methods and the reasons their children were selected to participate
- Support parent efforts, including training parents and teachers to build a home-school partnership
- Train teachers and other staff to work with parents
- Consult with parents about ways in which the school and home can work together
- Provide opportunities for parents to become informed about and participate in program design, operation, and evaluation
- To the extent practicable, ensure opportunities for the full participation of parents who lack literacy skills or whose native language is not English (U.S. Department of Education, 1989:34-35)

Generally, that school-based strategies have been found to be less successful than home-based partnership programs in eliciting the participation of low-income parents. Both of these approaches assume that teachers and administrators, rather than parents, will take the initiative. They schedule parent-involvement activities for the convenience of parents, and are responsive to local political realities (McLaughlin and Shields, 1987).

Principals, program coordinators, and teachers were asked two questions related to parental involvement, "Are parent outreach efforts a part of the compensatory education program?" and "To what extent do parents of students enrolled in the compensatory education program participate in these efforts?" All campuses reported that efforts had been made to involve parents in their children's learning and in the school's activities. However, not all campuses reported being successful. Barriers to successful parental involvement included a lack of time for parents to come to school due to full-time work schedules; a high level of mobility that makes it less likely for parents to become involved; infrequent or non-attendance because of the distance from the school or lack of transportation; and an inability to communicate because of language differences. Despite such barriers, some campuses reported having considerable success in involving parents in students' learning and campus activities.

Those campuses that reported successful parental involvement programs actively sought parental involvement, and did not limit parental participation to activities such as PTA attendance. As one principal commented:

> We have very successful parent programs in terms of numbers involved. One of the things we have espoused to our parents is: get involved; in whatever way you can, get involved. Many do not feel comfortable being involved in the classroom. But they might feel comfortable making materials at home for the teachers or working with machines here at school to prepare materials, or assisting with field trips, science fairs, or cultural fairs.

Campus staff members with this positive attitude toward developing a working relationship with parents perceived the relationship as being a reciprocal, rather than the parents merely being asked to contribute their time and efforts to the school.

> I think we need to begin to start doing some giving before we start to get from parents. It seems that those programs with efforts of a nature where there is something more than just a program for parents to come into the school, such as when a school goes out in connection with another community program, have a reciprocal effort. That kind of effort is more successful in getting parents to come back and work with the school. We have the English literacy programs going on and those parents eventually come back and help out by volunteering on the campus. We've got to look for more reciprocal types of involvement to entice parents to come help us.
>
> *Principal*

One approach reported by two of the campuses was home visitation. One campus reported that home visits are made to all students' homes at least once during the school year. The other campus reported making visits to over 50 percent of the students' homes. Home visits were made by the principal, teachers, and the parent training specialist for one of the campuses. The effectiveness of this approach has not been widely researched, but some studies have found that the quantity of home visits is the most important aspect of this approach. Visits are most effective when they are carefully planned and have an educational focus.

> We have a parent training specialist—she's an asset beyond belief. She helps with home visits, finds clothes for kids—whatever is needed. It's important because you get real continuity between the parents and the school. Home visits help a lot, too—you're no longer just a teacher, you're a friend. The principal also makes home visits and meets with almost every parent. I go to my students' homes in the fall and in the spring. I let them know what I expect for the year and invite them to come see what's going on in my classroom. The support from the family goes way up. It's all because you've been in that home and you're a person to them.
>
> *Fourth Grade Teacher*

In addition to making home visits, an important ingredient to successful parent involvement programs is constant and positive communication. Teachers reported being readily available to parents. They sent positive notes home with the students, prepared and disseminated parent newsletters, conducted open house twice per school year, planned regular conferences with the parents, and sent home student progress reports every three weeks. Most campuses reported providing all correspondence to be sent home in more than one language.

While all staff recognized the importance of parent involvement to student success, they also recognized how difficult it is to accomplish. Because of this difficulty, one principal reported that students were not allowed to be enrolled in the compensatory program until the parent came to the campus for a conference. Another campus required parents to sign a form indicating that the child had done the homework assignment, or the student would not participate in recess the next day.

Another approach to involving parents in their children' education is to provide parent training classes. Benjamin Bloom (1984), in a survey of group instructional methods, described the value of training parents. In the most effective instructional method, a group of parents met with a parent educator for about two hours each month for six months. The parent educator made a presentation to the parents about a topic related to improving the home environment. Then the parents discussed what they could do at home to support their children's learning at school. Parent education programs that were conducted by parent training specialists were well integrated into several of the campuses visited.

> The parent training specialist does a great deal of work—not just with behavior, discipline, or the instructional needs of children. She has a really extensive program where she's bringing the parents into the schools periodically. She has a program called the parent education program (PEP). She does training and brings outside people in to do presentations in the areas of child management, childhood development, and other topics that have really helped the parents. We also have a literacy program where the parents are working to improve their skills in reading. She tries to make an outreach effort with them. She's really made a difference in terms of the amount of times you see parents in the school. The parents participate in the child's school experience much more than they use to.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

This section included discussion of the importance of parental involvement in the compensatory program and presented some of the approaches taken by the campuses in increasing parental participation in their children's education. The following section will present discussion on the ways non-instructional support contributes to an effective program.

NON-INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPORT

While previous studies of compensatory education generally have not addressed the role of non-instructional support services, the importance of such services in offering a quality compensatory program cannot be neglected. The provision of numerous types of support is a common theme found in many of the interviews. Although there were only seven programs included in this study, there was a considerable range of the types and the scope of non-instructional services available to students and their families.

One teacher commented that there are three major forms of non-instructional support on her campus.

> The three major forms of non-instructional support on this campus are a full-time counselor, a parent training specialist, and a part-time nurse. If I had to get involved with some of the children's personal problems, I wouldn't be able to be as effective as an instructor. You have to be sensitive to their problems but stay focused on instruction. We also have a parent training specialist. She meets basic needs—kids need shoes or a coat, parents are living out of their car—she helps them find the services they need. We also have a part-time nurse. Some of the kids don't have doctors. They get sick and only have home remedies because there isn't any money.
>
> *Second Grade Teacher*

A principal from one of the rural campuses noted that the need for a counselor is not limited to the larger communities.

> A counselor is very important to us because regardless of where you live all of us have the alcohol and drug issues. We do have children exposed to that—we have children that can talk to you about devil worship—that's the latest. We have to be able to deal with those kinds of problems.

Another approach to providing support was found on one campus. A half-time teacher visited most classes on the campus for 30 minutes per week. This "success skills" teacher taught children how to feel good about themselves, how to build self-esteem, and how to take tests. This teacher generally provided moral support, especially during stressing times such as the week before the TEAMS test is administered.

One teacher commented that cultural activities are also considered to be an important part of non-instructional support services on her campus.

> We use a lot of cultural elements in our instruction. Kids go to other schools and visit their cultural programs. Other schools also come here. They have to be exposed to other cultures and also know their own culture. It helps build self-esteem. If you have a child with high self-esteem you have a happy child.
>
> *Fifth Grade Teacher*

After-school programs were reported on two campuses. One program for third grade students provided art class activities, creative writing, and occasional field trips to a restaurant for dinner. The other program made computers available to students after school. Basketball was available for boys and girls, as well as track and field. These programs were conducted by the principal and teachers who chose to stay after school to work with children, even though they received no additional compensation.

Other than services provided through Chapter 1 funds, none of these services were provided exclusively for children enrolled in the compensatory education program. Field trips, speakers, Adopt-A School activities, and other enrichment activities were campus-wide activities.

In addition to the support services described, much effort was expended to provide a positive school climate and to help the compensatory students develop a positive self-image and high self-esteem. One principal noted that "Our goal is for every child to have a very safe, happy, and comfortable environment in school. To me, that's very important non-instructional support—to feel safe, loved, and comfortable. So many of our children don't get that other places-including home."

This type of environment evolves from identifying and addressing basic needs, such as feeding students through the free and reduced price lunch program, having a "clothes closet" on campus for students in need of clothing, providing medical and dental care through Chapter 1 Regular funds, and offering staff training to sensitize teachers to symptoms of child abuse.

Non-instructional support carries over into the classroom in that it contributes to a positive school climate, brings recognition to students in a variety of ways, and helps to diminish the labelling of compensatory students. Several teachers described the importance of supporting the development of students' self-concept.

> There's a real family atmosphere in this school where the students know all the teachers and feel comfortable with a lot of adults in the school. They feel recognized and important. Adults speak to them, they're treated very individually. I speak to my children every day, asking them specific personal questions. I know what's going on in their lives. We all know the children very well. That helps with their self-concept.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

> We deal with self-concept in many ways. One of the basic methods is providing an instructional setting in which the children can attain a great deal of success. That's the bottom line to anything else we do like the honor roll, student of the week, perfect attendance awards, and pencils for their birthdays. All those tangible are really important. But basic to self-concept is that there's a level of student respect for teachers. That comes when a child feels that they are being successful in the instructional setting. I know there are other schools that do ribbons and certificates, but it really doesn't mean anything if the basic attitude is not positive.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

> Self-esteem is the key to success with these kids. When they come to my room, they are failures. Every kid in my room is considered at-risk. Every one has experienced failing. I help them build up their self-esteem. We have the "I Can Program." I teach the kids that if they'll say they can, they will. All the kids know that motto. They're to the point now that it shatters them to make a bad grade. Self-esteem and self-concept are the keys to turning these kids around.
>
> *Third Grade Teacher*

A fourth grade teacher notes the importance of not labelling the students as Chapter 1 students because of the effect on their self-confidence.

> One of the things they're never aware of is that they're a Chapter 1 student. The fact that they're not aware helps them. I also try to use a lot of competition in my classroom. One of the Chapter 1 students in my room is leading the class in the multiplication competition. I think if he had been branded a Chapter 1 student he would never have gotten up there and tried. The competition brings out some of their good qualities because they're expected to compete just like everyone else.

In sum, non-instructional support is seen by principals, program coordinators, and teachers as an important component of an effective compensatory education program. The availability of these support services varies by campus, but according to one coordinator, "Anything we consider a hindrance to a child's participation in school we try to take care of." As the number of at-risk students increases in the future, there is likely to be an increase in the need for these and other similar types of services.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The importance of staff development for school and program improvement has been well documented in the literature. Research conducted in the 1970's found that schools must be connected to outside knowledge to improve and that conditions within the schools must allow staff members to share this new knowledge (Tye and Tye, 1984). Generally, the primary task in staff development is to develop a professional, growth-oriented ecology in all schools. Joyce, Hersh, and McKibbin (1983) state three purposes of staff development:

1. To enrich the lives of teachers and administrators so that they continuously expand their general education, their emotional range, and their understanding of children.
2. To generate continuous efforts to improve schools. School faculty, administrators, and community members need to work together to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to bring those improvements into existence.
3. To create conditions that enable professional skill development to be continuous. Every teacher and administrator needs to be a student of learning and teaching and to engage in a continuous process of experimentation with their behavior and that of their students. They need to study alternative approaches to schooling and teaching, to select ones which expand their capabilities, and acquire the understanding and skills necessary to make fresh alternatives a part of their ongoing professional repertoire.

An extensive literature has developed focusing on staff development programs in relation to content, context, and process. Many delivery systems have been developed and research has been conducted on how these systems affect teacher change and the use of innovation (Callum and Hall, 1985). One model has been adopted by the Killeen school district and identified as an exemplary staff development model by the American Association of School Administrators is Operation Excel. This is an instructional staff development model developed to improve the teacher evaluation process. Based on the concepts of Madeline Hunter, this program advocates recognizing the teacher as a classroom decision-maker who chooses from a repertoire of instructional options designed to improve student learning.

In a recent article, Duttweiler (1989) identified six components of a professional development program that contribute to changes in knowledge, skills, and attitudes directed toward school-improvement:

- **Context**—The context consists of three broad dimensions: technical, interpersonal, and cultural. The technical is made up of the procedures and resources that help staff be successful in learning new skills, for example, providing time away from regular activities to participate. The interpersonal dimension includes conducting the training in a climate of open communication, peer support, and trust. The cultural dimension takes into account the beliefs, norms, and values of the school.
- **Administrative Support**—Successful staff development requires support from school boards and the administration. This includes providing genuine and visible support by providing the necessary time and adequate funding.
- **Involvement, Expressed Needs, and Opportunity for Choice**—Professional development should be based on a continuous assessment of staff needs. Professional development works best when participants have maximum opportunities for involvement and when they take part in planning the objectives and activities.
- **Continuity**—Activities that are planned and organized around a theme and linked to district goals are more effective than a series of one-shot seminars.

- **Content**—Professional development programs should contain content that addresses attitudes, skills, and substantive knowledge. Programs should be demanding and set high but reasonable standards of performance for participants.
- **Training Design**—Professional development should provide opportunities for the development of job-related skills through (a) the demonstration of the skill or its modeling in settings that simulate the workplace, (b) opportunities for practicing the skill, and (c) receiving productive performance-based feedback.

All seven campuses reported having an extensive staff development program that is well-integrated into the overall campus program. Training was provided for principals, program coordinators, teachers, instructional assistants, and parents on a regular basis. Each campus reported offering approximately 50 to 80 hours of training during the school year. Training was provided by outside consultants, education service center staff, and district staff. One program coordinator noted that "With the budget crunch, we feel it's best to send one person out to be trained and let them train others. Developing trainers has resulted in better implementation." This approach was thought to be very effective for other reasons as well.

> Once a month, we have inservice when teachers on this campus are responsible for sharing effective teaching practices with the whole staff. These are the kinds of inservices that are most effective because these are the ones where you get to ask—How do you deal with a child who hasn't had anything to eat or is dirty? It's easy to like kids who are pretty and clean, but it's hard sometimes to like a kid who's dirty and doesn't smell very good. How do you deal with a group of children who have frustrated you? You've given them the skill and they can't get it. How would you do it? We do a lot of brainstorming on these kinds of issues. I encourage the teachers to problem-solve and to take risks. I also send one teacher to training and have her train the others. We do our own inservice.
>
> *Program Coordinator*

Each campus was asked whether training had been provided regarding strategies designed to raise the performance of low-performing students. Although the list of topics is too extensive to include them all, frequently mentioned topics included the following:

- Increasing TEAMS Scores
- Motivation Theory in the Classroom
- Effective Schools Correlates
- Cooperative Learning
- The Learning Styles Inventory
- Working With the Slow Learner
- The Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (TESA) program
- The Use of Children's Literature in Instruction
- The Language Arts Mastery Program (LAMP)

This section has been an overview of the role of staff development in an effective compensatory program. The next section will discuss the relevance of program evaluation to the success of a compensatory education program.

Program Evaluation

Continuous, systematic evaluation is a process necessary to ensuring the quality of compensatory programs. Program evaluation at the campus level depends upon the leadership of administrators, especially the principal. Stufflebeam and Webster (1987) note that even in the case where evaluation specialists conducted the evaluation, their services can be of little relevance unless focused on issues important to those in authority and unless administrators are attuned to using those findings. They also conceptualize evaluation in the following way:

> Evaluation is a conceptual activity. Evaluators and their clients must conceptualize the evaluation questions, information needed to address them, appropriate values and criteria for examining and interpreting the information, ways to obtain and analyze the information, the structure of reports for communicating the findings, and appropriate ways to use the findings. They must also conceptualize the ways in which evaluation fits into the structure of the school system and community: that is, how evaluation is to be governed, organized, administered, financed, controlled for bias, and employed within a political environment. And they need to develop a shared conception of what evaluation means, what it is for, how it is effectively implemented, and how it is properly appraised. (Stufflebeam and Webster, 1988:570)

While there are numerous definitions of program evaluation, one that is offered by Stufflebeam et al. (1971:40) appears to capture the ways in which evaluation is practiced on the campuses visited.

> Evaluation is the process of delineating, obtaining, and applying descriptive and judgmental information about the worth or merit of some object's goals, plans, operations, and results in order to guide decision-making, maintain accountability, and/or foster understandings.

All campuses conduct evaluations required under federal Chapter 1 regulations. These evaluations consist of monitoring Normal Curve Equivalent gains year to year based upon achievement test scores. Although these data are submitted to the Agency as a requirement for receiving Chapter 1 funding, they are of little value at the campus level. That is, these data provide one indicator of student progress, but they provide little information that is used to make programmatic changes.

Of the seven campuses visited, only Waterloo Elementary was evaluated by a district evaluation specialist. In part, because of the school's status as a priority school within the district, thorough evaluations were conducted annually. These assessments include teachers' direct instruction, materials, communiques, attendance records, and reading levels. All campuses in the study, including Waterloo Elementary, used other approaches in evaluating their programs. Three examples are classroom observation, using the effective schools model as a basis for evaluation, and the use of the Instructional Leadership System.

Classroom observation is an informal way for the principal to assess the quality of instruction on any campus and to provide feedback to teachers.

> We visit the classrooms every day. The assistant principal and I visit every single classroom without exception, and we look for a number of things. Are the teachers teaching? We listen—does what they're teaching make sense? Is what is being taught the curriculum or are they just sharing other types of information? Are students on task? What kinds of tasks are they on? I cannot overemphasize the importance of getting into the classroom, asking the teachers what's going on, giving them feedback, giving the students feedback. They learn different strategies and then I go back and ask them how are they practicing what they have learned, in a non-threatening manner.
>
> *Principal*

A second way to evaluate the program at the classroom level grows out of the effective schools research.

> We have the teachers go through the process of identifying their children to allow the teachers to see for themselves how children, who are low SES, compare; and whether it's true that these children were treated differently than other children. Did they achieve at a different level? Why is that? Do boys or girls achieve at a higher level? There may be an inconsistency in the classroom. At one grade level, for example the fourth grade, kids seem to do well in math on the ITBS. The pattern at fifth grade shows that these kids are not doing as well as they should. What could have caused it? We focus in on the goals and objectives. I think the effective schools approach correlates with an emphasis on measurement.
>
> *Principal*

A fourth way the program was evaluated was through the use of the Instructional Leadership System. The principal at the Bluebonnet Elementary campus described the approach:

> The Instructional Leadership System is a systematic approach to analyzing data (TEAMS and achievement) and developing specific goals and a plan of action to reach those goals. It's a very formal process. Afterward, we go back and evaluate how well we met our goals. Informally, we are continually asking whether today's lesson worked or did not work. Whether we should go back and reteach this or whether the students master it. As a principal, I will even go into a classroom and ask a teacher to let me grade the day's test on multiplication tables. Then I know not only where the class is but where each student is. As a result of that, I had a student in my office that afternoon working on multiplication tables. It's that sort of thing that goes on all the time.

Appendix C provides an example of how the evaluation process is integrated into the ongoing educational program. While many districts lack the funds to have an evaluation specialist conduct annual evaluations of programs, the Instructional Leadership System is a process in which the entire campus is involved in the evaluation and monitoring of student progress in a systematic manner.

This section included a number of examples of the methods used by campuses to evaluate the quality of education. Evaluations generally included both formal and informal methods, requiring the support of the central administration and the principal to be effective. No single method can be replicated across all districts without modification to each district's or campus individual needs. Regardless of the approach taken, however, evaluation begins with the belief that

> You have to constantly try, evaluate, revise programs, and look for different approaches that work for different types of students. No one program will work for all types of kids. You have to constantly look for successful elements of programs to work with different kinds of kids—it is a constant evolving type of thing and not everybody should do things the same way. You need flexibility as well as the integral parts that appear to be successful.
>
> *Program Coordinator*

Resources

When asked "What additional resources would benefit your program?", staff on the seven campuses reported five general areas of resources that could be used to improve their program. Those included buildings and grounds, materials, computers, more research funds, and funds for innovation. No one resource area was reported by all seven campuses.

One principal thought that improving the current physical condition of the campus would benefit the program more than any other type of improvement.

> We don't have the space that over 500 students in eight grade levels deserve. A playground space, one hundred by one hundred feet, is not adequate for children. That's not acceptable. Over 80 percent of our children are FRPL. Over 90 percent would qualify if it weren't for the changes made in determining how children qualify. What I'm getting at is that many of our children get up in the clothes they went to bed in. They wear the same clothes for two or three days. They don't always have the appropriate sanitary conditions at home. They don't have proper utilities. That we should send them to a public school that doesn't have what it should have, to me, is not acceptable. If our kids had a better school they would function differently. Because we wouldn't have to move them around so much because of flooding. Then they would be in a physical structure they could have a great sense of pride in.
>
> *Principal*

Library materials, as well as other kinds of materials, were also reported to be inadequate.

> We need more materials in the library, and more money so that we can purchase the different materials we need, especially at the primary levels given the two languages that we have to teach and given the diversity of levels at which our children are performing. We get older children that we don't want to put into fourth grade, for example. That causes us to have to make a lot of instructional materials for them, or to have to purchase more materials.

Classroom computers were the most frequently reported area that could benefit from additional funding. Having one or more computers available for each classroom, in addition to a computer laboratory, was considered ideal. As described earlier in the report, teachers use computers for drill and practice and for reinforcing skills taught through direct instruction. Additional reading software and other software that would correspond to lessons currently being taught was also reported to be an area in need of improvement. Several campuses reported a desire to adopt or expand the prescription learning computer labs.

One program coordinator reported a statewide need for a bank of available successful programs and practices. She recommended that $2 million be provided by the legislature to begin to evaluate programs and identify effective program components. Her recommended approach would provide funds so districts could systematically evaluate programs. Ownership at the local level was considered to be an essential element of this approach to supporting compensatory education.

Additional resources for innovative activities were also considered to be an area of importance. These funds would be made available for activities such as field trips, innovative teacher training, and other activities directed toward program improvement.

CHAPTER VII

TOWARD A TYPOLOGY OF EFFECTIVE COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

SUMMARY

The purpose of this three-year study is to identify effective compensatory education practices. This task is important for a number of reasons. First, $658 million in state and federal funds for compensatory education programs was allocated during the 1988-89 school year. This figure does not include the considerable amount of local funds that were expended for these programs. Second, Phase II of this compensatory education study reported that an estimated 675,000 students were served in compensatory education programs during the 1986-87 school year. This number is likely to increase as Texas moves into the 21st century, considering the expected increase in both the number and proportion of disadvantaged students. These considerations provide a clear need for efforts directed toward identifying effective compensatory education practices that can be replicated in a wide range of settings.

The vast majority of studies of compensatory education have focused only on federally funded Chapter 1 programs and have considered only a single measure of program success. This three-year study has deviated from the traditional approach in at least two ways. For this study, compensatory education was defined more broadly than federally funded Chapter 1 Regular and Migrant and Chapter 2 programs. Rather, this study incorporated all programs serving students who were not performing satisfactorily in academic courses, on basic skills tests, and/or on other standardized achievement tests, regardless of program funding sources. Bilingual/ESL and special education programs were not included. This approach was advantageous in that it provided a more comprehensive picture of the total resources and effort expended to serve this population. A disadvantage in this approach was that the district staff who completed the data collection instruments at times had difficulty determining whether a program was a compensatory program.

In addition to a broader definition of compensatory education, this study has provided a basis for alternative approaches to the evaluation of compensatory education programs. For more than 20 years, the predominant approach to evaluating these programs has been to use the NCE gains or losses on achievement test scores in order to satisfy federal evaluation requirements. In Phase II of this study, a statewide assessment was conducted using multiple outcome variables at both the campus and individual student level to identify successful compensatory education programs. The data collected on promotion rates, program exit rates, and TEAMS scores were then used to identify a small number of elementary compensatory programs that were performing above the statewide average. Adopting a case study approach, Agency staff then used face-to-face interviews as a data collection method to capture the campus staff members' perceptions of effective program practices. These data, supplemented with campus-level data, were used to describe the campus and program and to document the quality of the programs. Letters from superintendents of participating school districts are included in Appendix D. As indicated in these letters, the approach used in this evaluation resulted in a report that was considered useful as a basis for discussion regarding program improvement issues. Perhaps future investigations will continue to build upon the findings of this three-year study. The current model of Chapter 1 evaluation as used nationally is unlikely to lead to program improvement at the local level.

The conceptual model adopted for this study was based upon the literature that defines evaluation as a process of negotiation. Throughout the study, the evaluation is a series of episodes that require the evaluator, program staff, and school district staff to agree upon the questions to be asked, the methods to be used, the programs to be included, and the recommendations to be made. This approach is in contrast to the positivist model that sees evaluation as scientific, value-free, and that is capable of identifying one absolute reality from which there are no variations. For a further explication of the qualitative approach and the constructionist approach to evaluation, see Patton (1980, 1987), Guba and Lincoln (1989), and Fetterman (1989).

Previous research in the identification of effective program practices has produced mixed results. Recently, the findings of effective schools research has become popular and has been adopted by a large number of school districts as the most effective method of ensuring program improvement. That model was not used for this study because effective schools research is not specific to compensatory programs. Findings from this study do corroborate the effective schools literature in that many of the effective schools' correlates were found to be integrated into the compensatory education programs visited. However, because of the unique characteristics of the students in compensatory education programs, effective programs must exceed the requirements of the effective school model. Non-instructional support is an essential element of an effective compensatory education program. For example, students in these programs often require attention in areas not emphasized in the effective schools literature such as counseling, clothes, and activities directed toward improving the self-esteem of students. Successful parental involvement for compensatory students may require strategies that differ from those that are effective in schools serving predominantly middle-class populations.

Other approaches to identifying effective compensatory education practices have failed to identify instructional approaches or program characteristics that are consistently effective. As with the effective schools literature, findings of this study are consistent with much of the previous research. Findings by Hepler, et. al. (1987) are the most consistent with the findings of this study. For example, the importance of the belief system to the program's success, the need to provide innovative and intensive services for compensatory students, and the fact that a wide variety of schools are successfully serving disadvantaged populations.

The programs selected for this study are evidence that quality compensatory programs exist in a wide variety of school systems, regardless of the system's size, location, or ethnic and economic composition. For example, over 50 percent of the students enrolled on all seven campuses were minority students and all but one campus enrolled a majority of its students in the free and reduced price lunch program.

Even so, compensatory students on the seven participating campuses were found to be mastering TEAMS at a higher rate than students in the Chapter 1 Regular program statewide and, in some cases, at a higher rate than all students statewide. Increases in the percentage of students mastering TEAMS when grade levels were compared over a period of time provided additional evidence that these were quality programs. While achievement test scores were found to be in the expected range for compensatory programs, little improvement was found in student performance on these tests. Students were performing only slightly above the level that may be expected with no intervention of the compensatory program. This is finding is not surprising, considering the statewide emphasis on basic skills mastery. Some educators are concerned that this emphasis on basic skills is at the expense of students learning critical thinking and other higher-order thinking skills. Staff members participating in this study reported their efforts to expose compensatory students to higher-order thinking skills by extending the essential elements and by using models such as Bloom's taxonomy. Time constraints often limited the opportunity to develop these skills.

Illustration IV presents a typology of effective elementary compensatory education program practices. This typology is a method used to organize and categorize the major themes of the compensatory programs. It is a tool for organizing. Data from the participants themselves (presented earlier in this report) provide the actual linkages between processes and outcomes or program goals. In the rows, effective program practices are listed. Columns represent program goals or outcomes. For example, tutorials are listed as an effective program practice and linked to three outcomes: student performance, program coordination, and parental involvement. Interview data indicated that tutorials were seen as an effective method of improving student performance, coordination is required between the regular instruction and tutorial instruction, and parents often volunteer to tutor students. Theoretically, a program coordinator might use the typology to consider ways for improving a compensatory program at the local level. For example, if program coordination is an area requiring improvement, the typology refers the program coordinator to sections of this report that address administrative support, program organization, and tutorials. In these sections, specific practices, as implemented in the districts in this study, are discussed. The following discussion will summarize the findings from the interview data.

PHILOSOPHY AND GOALS

According to these findings, compensatory education is considered to be important and necessary on all campuses visited. Staff on these campuses were found to have high expectations for themselves and their students, to assume responsibility for student learning, and to constantly strive to improve the program. In most cases, no distinction was made between compensatory and regular students. Staff expressed concern that making a distinction would label the compensatory students and result in lower expectations for their performance. Establishing this climate for compensatory programs cannot be accomplished easily; however, its importance cannot be overlooked.

ILLUSTRATION IV

Typology of Effective Elementary Compensatory Education Practices

	GOALS/OUTCOMES					
	Leadership	Student Performance	Coordination	Parental Involvement	Staff Skill Development	Program Improvement
PRACTICES	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**
Administrative Support	X		X	X	X	
Program Organization			X			
Program Policies (a) Promotion (b) Identification (c) Exit		X				
Instructional Approaches (Multiple)		X				
Essential Element Mastery (On Grade Instruction)		X				
Tutorials (Functional Level)		X	X	X		
Student Assessment		X				
Peer Teaching		X				
Instructional Assistants		X				
Computers and Technology		X				
Non-Instructional Support		X		X		
Staff Development					X	X
Program Evaluation						X
Qualified Teachers		X				

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION

A considerable amount of research has focused on the advantages and disadvantages of various methods of organizing the program. Data gathered for this study indicated that effective practices, not the setting, is a critical issue worthy of attention. A variety of program designs, from schoolwide to pull-out, were used to design the programs in this study. The majority of programs used more than one program design (for example, send-in, pull-out). The design of the program was contextual, based upon local conditions, the population served, and the resources available.

ROLE OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

All programs reported that both the principal and program coordinator provided substantial support for the programs. They were perceived as being nearby and available to discuss issues that surfaced on a regular basis. Examples of the administrators' support included scheduling compensatory education classes effectively, ensuring coordination between the regular and the compensatory program, promoting communication both within and across grade levels, fostering a sense of teamwork throughout the campus, and providing the freedom for teachers to be innovative and to be able to experiment with innovative approaches in the classroom.

PROGRAM POLICIES

Three policy areas were identified as being necessary for an effective compensatory program. These included policies regarding student identification, program exit policies, and promotion and retention policies. All programs reported identifying students for the program through the use of multiple criterion such as teacher recommendation, TEAMS scores, attendance records, and achievement test scores. Students were also exited from the program on the basis of multiple criterion. After student exit, student performance was commonly monitored for two years. In these programs, retention is considered on a case by case basis, and generally used only in extreme circumstances. For students unable to meet promotion standards during the regular school year, extended year and summer school programs were frequently reported alternatives.

TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

All programs reported that compensatory education teachers were at least as well qualified as other teachers on the campus on the basis of career ladder placement and graduate level education. Three characteristics considered important for selecting compensatory teachers are an ability to accommodate students' learning styles, proficiency in the content area, and an ability to diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses. Coordinating with other teachers in the building and a belief that all students can learn were other characteristics considered as necessary for effective compensatory teachers.

INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

Teachers reported using a variety of instructional approaches. Some of the most frequently reported included direct instruction, drill and practice, individualized instruction, and the multi-sensory approach. Lessons were modified to meet the individual needs of individual students or small groups of students'. The findings indicate that the teachers were competent in using a range of approaches and are able to identify the appropriate approach for a given student. An atmosphere of collegiality on a campus that permits teachers to work directly with the principal and that provides opportunities for other teachers to observe and learn new and innovative approaches was also conducive to successful instruction.

ESSENTIAL ELEMENT MASTERY

Criteria found to be important for mastery of the essential elements included diagnosis and placement in the appropriate grade level and groups within the classroom. Lessons were commonly introduced on grade level. Students' functional levels were served through tutorials, individualized instruction, and modified materials. Teachers reported going beyond the essential elements and exposing students to higher-order thinking skills through extending lessons and using models such as Bloom's taxonomy.

STUDENT ASSESSMENT

Studies have indicated that teachers spend as much as 30 percent of their time in assessing student progress. Teachers in this study reported using eleven methods, some formal and some informal. Multiple methods of assessment were considered essential to accurately assess student progress.

TUTORIALS

Tutorials during the school day were found to be more effective than those provided after school. This approach maintained continuity for the student and eliminated practical problems (for example, transportation). Both teachers and students were less likely to suffer from fatigue during tutorials held throughout the school day. Peer and cross-age teaching were reported to be an efficient and cost-effective method of tutorial instruction.

INSTRUCTIONAL ASSISTANTS

The majority of programs reported using instructional aides in the compensatory education program. One district, however, eliminated the use of instructional assistants because of their ineffectiveness. Diagnosing instructional assistants basic skills and providing staff development activities were two methods used to improve their effectiveness.

COMPUTERS AND TECHNOLOGY

Computers were reported to be a useful tool in providing remedial instruction. Specifically, computer-assisted instruction was deemed beneficial in addressing a different learning style and providing a method for delivering individualized instruction. Prescription learning was reported to be an effective method used to diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses. Most campuses reported that they would purchase additional computers and software if resources were available.

PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

Effective compensatory programs take a proactive approach to parental involvement. Parents were invited to participate in an expanded range of activities. Home visits and the use of training specialists were two other methods used to reach out to parents. Some campuses reported offering parent literacy classes and parent training classes as a way to establish a reciprocal relationship between the parents and the staff.

NON-INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPORT

Non-instructional support was an essential ingredient to program effectiveness. As the role of the school has expanded, the need has increased for support services previously not considered within the purview of schools. Counselors, nurses, and staff to teach special courses such as Success Skills and clothing closets were examples of this type of support. Staff training on topics such as identifying child abuse were a necessary part of this support.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT

All programs reported offering extensive staff development programs. Principals, program coordinators, and instructional assistants received an average of 50 hours of training per year. Because of cost constraints, a common approach was to train one staff member who then trained others on the campus.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

In addition to the annual Chapter 1 evaluation, programs reported using classroom observation techniques and adopting effective schools methods of measurement for evaluating the compensatory programs. The Instructional Leadership System provided an example of evaluation integrated into the overall education program.

RESOURCES

Staff in the programs visited reported five areas requiring additional resources. They included buildings and grounds, materials, computers, more research funds, and funds for innovation.

VERIFICATION OF PHASE II FINDINGS

Although Phase II and Phase III of this study provide considerably different perspectives on compensatory education programs, a number of findings from Phase II were verified through the use of the case study approach. These include:

1. Generally, compensatory teachers are as qualified as regular education teachers.
2. Districts use a wide variety of instructional approaches and arrangements to tailor instruction to the needs of students.
3. Students in compensatory programs are achieving small gains in achievement test scores, but data are not yet available that will adequately reflect the longevity of these gains.
4. The discrepancy between eligibility for free/reduced price lunch and need for compensatory services raises questions regarding the practice of basing funding solely on the numbers of free/reduced price lunch students within a district.
5. Although compensatory programs have traditionally used test scores as a measure of success, there are other measures which are of equal importance (exit rates from the program, promotion rates).
6. It may be a commonly accepted practice to retain students at the first grade to allow them to "catch up" and be better prepared the next year. However, considerable evidence indicates lack of long-term success in most cases of retention.

7. Peer and cross-age tutoring are effective methods of providing remedial instruction to compensatory students. The practice of compensatory students tutoring other students is beneficial.

8. High expectations for student performance is an important and necessary ingredient for a successful compensatory program. High expectations are translated into practice by instructing students on grade level in the regular classroom.

9. Coordination between the regular program and compensatory program is important to student success.

10. Although students may succeed when parental involvement is lacking, parental participation appears to increase the possibility of success.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Currently, an area requiring the Agency's attention are guidelines for developing and implementing compensatory education programs. For Chapter 1 programs, strict guidelines exist regarding funding and the supplemental nature of the programs. In October 1989, the Division of Special Programs disseminated the *Chapter 1 Improvement Plan for Texas Schools* providing some guidance to school districts in compensatory program planning and implementation. A second document was recently released by the Agency is entitled *Successful Schooling for Economically Disadvantaged At-Risk Youth*. However, at the state level, there are no compensatory education guidelines comparable to the *Guidelines for Language Usage in Bilingual Education and English-as-a-Second Language Programs* or the *Texas State Plan and Guidelines for the Education of the Gifted/Talented*. Findings from this study support discussion regarding the need to develop and disseminate these guidelines or a technical assistance document describing effective compensatory education program practices. In addition to the development of these guidelines or technical assistance document, the existence of this document needs to be made known to those interested in the improvement of compensatory education services. This document might include the following components:

1. Instructional Leadership
2. Student Achievement
3. Coordination Between the Compensatory and the Regular Program
4. Staff Skill Development
5. Program Improvement
6. Parent and Community Involvement
7. Program Evaluation

REFERENCES

Allington, Richard L. 1987. *Designing effective compensatory reading instruction: A review.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

Anderson, Judith I. and R.M. Stonehill. 1986. *Twenty years of federal compensatory education: What do we know about the program?* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, California.

Archambault, F. 1986. *Instructional setting: Key issue in bogus concern.* Paper prepared for the Conference on the Effects of Alternative Designs in Compensatory Education, Washington, D.C.

Baenen, Nancy R. 1988. *Perspectives after five years—has grade retention passed or failed?* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana.

Bialo, Ellen R. and Jay P. Sivin. 1989. Computers and at-risk youth: A partial solution to a complex problem. *Classroom Computer Learning* 9(4):34-39.

Bloom, Benjamin S., ed. 1956. *Taxonomy of educational objectives.* Handbook 1, *Cognitive domain.* New York: David McKay.

——— 1984. The search for methods of group instruction as effective as one-to-one tutors. *Educational Leadership* 41(8):4-17.

Callum, Mary F. and Gayle L. Hall, ed. 1985. *Staff development.* Exemplary Practices Series. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa.

Duttweiler, Patricia Cloud. 1989. Components of an effective professional development program. *Journal of Staff Development* 10(2):2-6.

Ferrell, Barbara G. and Donald W. Compton. 1986. Use of ethnographic techniques for evaluation in a large school district. In *Educational Evaluation: Ethnography in Theory Practice and Politics.* Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.

Fetterman, D.M. 1982. Ethnography in educational research: The dynamics of diffusion. *Educational Researcher,* 11(3):17-22,29.

——— 1989. *Ethnography step by step.* Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.

Fisher, Glenn. 1983. Where CAI is effective: A summary of the research. *Electronic Leaning* (November/December):82-84.

Guba, Egon G. and Yvonne S. Lincoln. 1989. *Fourth generation evaluation.* Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.

Guffney, Michael J. and D.M. Schember. 1982. *The effects of the Title I supplement-not-supplant and excess cost provisions on program design decisions.* McClean, Virginia: Advanced Technology, Inc.

Hedin, Diane. 1986. *Students as teachers: A tool for improving school climate and productivity.* Paper presented to the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, New York, New York.

Henderson, Anne, ed. 1988. *The evidence continues to grow: Parent involvement improves student achievement.* Paper presented to the National Committee for Citizens in Education, Columbus, Ohio.

Hepler, Nancy, et. al. 1987. *Effective programs for extremely disadvantaged students.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

Johnson, David W., Roger T. Johnson, and Edythe Johnson Holubec. 1986. *Circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom.* Edina, Minnesota: Interaction Books.

Joyce, B.R., R.H. Hersch, and M.K. McKibbin. 1983. *The structure of school improvement.* New York: Longman Press.

Koppelman, K.L. 1979. The explication model an anthropological approach to program evaluation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis,* 1(4):59-64.

Kulik, James. A., Chen-Lin C. Kulik, and Robert Bangert-Drowns. 1985. Effectiveness of computer-based education in elementary schools. *Computers in Human Behavior* 1(1):59-74.

Leinhardt, Gaea and Allan Pallay. 1982. Restrictive educational settings: Exile or haven? *Review of Educational Research,* 52(4):557-558

Leitner, David and Kan Yagi. 1989. *Effective school practices in compensatory education programs.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, California.

Lytle, James H. 1988. Revised Chapter 1 opens options for schoolwide plans. *Education Week,* 14 December.

McLaughlin, M.W. and P.M. Shields. 1986. Involving parents in schools: Lessons for policy. In *Designs for Compensatory Education: Conference Proceedings and Papers,* B.I. Williams, P.A. Richmond, and B.J. Mason, ed. Washington D.C.: Research and Evaluation Associates.

——— 1987. Involving low-income parents in the schools: A role for policy? *Phi Delta Kappan,* 69(2):156-160.

Madden, Nancy A. and Robert E. Slavin. 1987. *Effective pullout programs for students at risk.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

Marshall, F. Ray and Leon F. Bouvier. 1986. *Population change and the future of Texas.* Washington, D.C: Population Reference Bureau.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Undated. *Research Within Reach: Elementary School Mathematics.* Reston Virginia.

Pallas, Aaron M., Gary Natriello, and Edward L. McDill. 1989A. The changing nature of the disadvantaged population: Current dimensions and trends. *Educational Researcher* 18 (5):16-22.

——— 1989B. *The changing nature of our disadvantaged population: Current dimensions and future trends.* Report no. 35. Baltimore, Maryland: Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools, The John Hopkins University.

Patton, Michael Quinn. 1980. *Qualitative evaluation methods.* Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.

——— 1987. *How to use qualitative methods in evaluation.* Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.

——— 1987. *Creative evaluation.* Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.

Rich, D. 1986. The parent gap in compensatory education. In *Designs for Compensatory Education: Conference Proceedings and Papers*, B.I. Williams, P.A. Richmond, and B.J. Mason, ed. Washington D.C.: Research and Evaluation Associates.

Rowan, Brian and Larry F. Guthrie. 1987. *The quality of Chapter 1 instruction: Results from a study of 24 schools.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

Slavin, Robert E. and Nancy A. Madden. 1987. *Effective classroom programs for students at risk.* Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

Stiggins, Richard J. 1985. Improving assessment where it means the most: In the classroom. *Educational Leadership* 43(2):69-74.

Stufflebeam, Daniel L., W.J. Foley, W.J. Gephart, E.G. Guba, R.L. Hammond, H.O. Merriman, and M.M. Prouus. 1971. *Educational evaluation and decision-making.* Itasca, Illinois: Peacock.

Stufflebeam, Daniel L. and W.J. Webster. 1980. An analysis of alternative approaches to evaluation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 2(3):5-20.

——— 1987. Evaluation as an administrative function. In *Handbook of Research in Educational Administration.* Norman J. Boyan, ed. New York: Longman Press.

Tye, K.A. and B.B. Tye. 1984. Teacher isolation and school reform. *Phi Delta Kappan* 65(5):319-322.

U.S. Department of Education. 1986A. *What works: Research about teaching and learning.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

——— 1986B. *The effectiveness of Chapter 1 services.* National Assessment of Chapter 1. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

——— 1987. *The current operation of the Chapter 1 program.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

——— 1989. Educating our children: Parents and schools together. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Wang, M., M. Bear., J. Conklin, and R. Hoepfner. 1981. *Report 10: Compensatory services and educational development in the school year.* Santa Monica, California: System Development Corporation.

Warren R.L. 1963. *Social Research Consultation.* New York: Russell Sage.

APPENDICES

Overview of the 1986-87 Program Evaluation Report Compensatory Education Programs*

BACKGROUND

The Texas Education Agency (Agency) initiated a statewide evaluation of compensatory education programs during the 1985-86 school year. The purpose of this three-phase study is to evaluate the impact of the program upon students, in relation to the considerable amount of state and local funding directed to compensatory education programs.

The goals of the first phase of the study (1985-86) were to identify the most valid and accessible data sources, to refine the evaluation questions, and to develop program descriptions. Results of Phase I were summarized in an internal document that provided a description of compensatory programs in a sample of districts. The goal of Phase II (1986-87) was to link student performance to program implementation. Findings from Phase II of the study were presented to the State Board of Education in July 1988. This overview describes some of the most significant findings of the second phase of the study. Phase III of the study, based upon data collected during Phase II, will identify specific campuses using successful practices as characterized by outstanding student performance.

For purposes of the study, compensatory education was defined as follows:

> Compensatory education is defined as instruction provided to students who are not performing satisfactorily in academic courses, on basic skills assessment instruments (e.g., TEAMS), and/or on other standardized achievement tests. Compensatory education refers to ALL programs regardless of funding source. These programs may include, but are not limited to, federally funded programs such as Chapter I Regular or Migrant, Chapter 2, state funded compensatory programs, and/or locally funded compensatory programs. Compensatory education also includes, but is not limited to, courses such as Reading Improvement, Correlated Language Arts, and Fundamentals of Mathematics. For this study, compensatory programs do not include bilingual, ESL, or special education programs.

Data collection instruments were sent to all districts to be distributed to local campuses with compensatory programs. The distribution was to include all campuses with compensatory programs regardless of funding source. Data collection instruments were returned from a total of 3,235 Texas campuses.

Data were also requested from a sample of students served in compensatory programs in each district. These students were selected from two categories in odd numbered grade levels. The first category consisted of successful students, and the second consisted of nonsuccessful students. Students were categorized successful or nonsuccessful according to the criteria included in the Definitions of Success section below. Questions were asked regarding individual performance measures, program implementation, and teacher and parental variables. A total of 4,567 student questionnaires were completed and returned to the Agency and were used in the analysis.

---

*Copies of the complete report (TEA Publication No. RE9 726 01) may be obtained from the Publications Distribution Office of the Texas Education Agency. The charge for each copy of this report is $3.50.

Three expected outcomes of the second phase of the 1986-87 study were:

1. An overview of the implementation of compensatory education programs.
2. Identification of program practices associated with successful and nonsuccessful students.
3. Identification of campuses for Phase III of the study. According to data collected during Phase II, campuses that appear to offer an effective compensatory program will be visited by Agency staff to obtain specific information regarding effective program practices.

DEFINITIONS OF SUCCESS

Student

Both subjective and objective measures were used to identify successful and nonsuccessful students. The subjective measure of success was based upon a district definition of success. The measure included such elements as grades, teacher judgments, or other criteria. Because of the subjective nature of this measure, the definition of success varied considerably across districts.

A number of objective success measures were gathered for each student. These measures included:

- TEAMS scores
- Achievement test scores
- Promotion information
- Reading level
- Essential element mastery

Campus

For the campus information, other variables were selected to form performance measures. These measures included:

- Promotion rates
- Exit rates from the program
- TEAMS scores/Normal Curve Equivalent Gains

TEAMS scores were available at the campus level, and Normal Curve Equivalent Gains were available at the district level. These measures, in conjunction with the promotion rates and the exit rates from the compensatory program, were used to select the campuses for Agency on-site visits to identify effective program practices.

GENERAL FINDINGS OF PHASE II

The following findings result from the data collected at the campus and student levels. These findings describe compensatory education programs as practiced on a statewide basis. Because of the large variation among districts in terms of size, available resources, and the types of student served, these findings may not be applicable to an individual campus. Recommendations regarding program implementation based upon the results of this study are forthcoming from the Agency's Division of Special Programs.

Estimates of the Total Number of Students Served Vary

Data from the campus questionnaire indicated that approximately 956,000 students received direct compensatory instructional services in 1986-87. This count probably does not include all students in the state because responses were not received from all the campuses with compensatory programs. According to other Agency data collected for funding purposes, more than one million students were eligible for the free/reduced price lunch program during the 1986-87 school year.

Low Income Students Are Not Necessarily Compensatory Students

The Phase II student and campus data indicated that approximately 55 to 60 percent of the compensatory students were eligible for the free/reduced price lunch program. Compensatory students eligible for the Free and Reduced Price Lunch program were more likely to spend longer periods of time in the compensatory program, were less likely to participate in extracurricular activities, and were more likely to exhibit lower performance on basic skills tests and standardized achievement tests than other compensatory students. This premise was also supported by differences in TEAMS scores between these two groups of students. In addition, only 20 percent of the campuses reported that fewer than 20 percent of the compensatory students were eligible for the free/reduced price lunch program.

Promotion Rates Are Lower for Students in Compensatory Programs

In general, promotion rates for first grade students in the compensatory program were significantly lower than those for students in regular education classes. It may be a commonly accepted practice to retain these students in the first grade to allow them to "catch up" and be better prepared the next year. However, other studies provide considerable evidence indicating the lack of long-term success in most cases of retention. Promotion rates were lower at all grade levels for students in compensatory programs.

Moreover, some elementary students exiting compensatory programs were placed into the next grade level. Since placement implies inadequate performance in the previous grade level, it is somewhat difficult to understand why these students were also exited from the compensatory program.

Exit Rates Are Consistent Across Districts

The percentage of students exiting compensatory programs remained essentially the same across districts of various sizes. Exit rates for elementary compensatory education programs were similar to the 30 percent exit rate for seventh grade reading improvement programs. The percentage of eighth grade reading improvement students scheduled for ninth grade Correlated Language Arts (CLA) reflected approximately the same exit rate, with 60 percent of these students continuing in compensatory programs.

Test Scores Show Moderate Changes

Students in compensatory programs obtained positive but moderate changes in achievement test scores, basic skills scores, and TEAMS scores. There were higher Normal Curve Equivalent gain scores evident in the lower grade levels.

SUCCESS VARIABLES

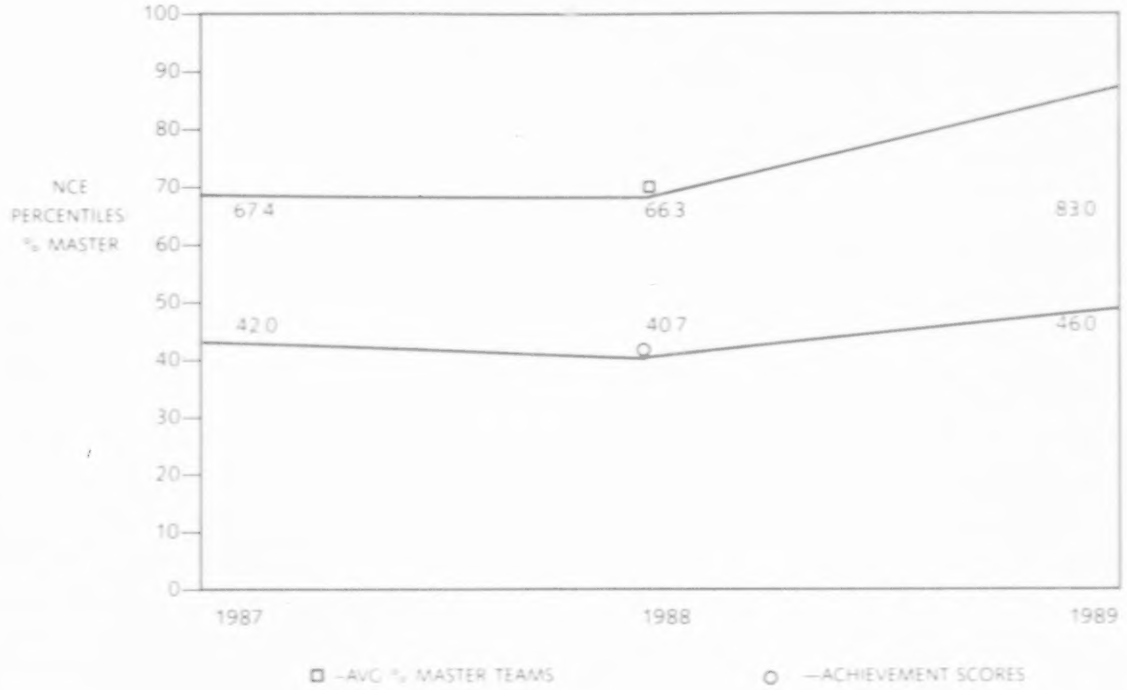
By means of a regression analysis technique, eight variables were found to be statistically associated at the .05 level with students' success or nonsuccess. These included:

1. Extracurricular Activities—Compensatory students who participated in extracurricular activities were more likely to be successful. However, few low-performing students participated in these activities.
2. Never Retained—Students who had never been retained were notably more successful than students who had been retained one or more times.
3. On-Level Instruction—Students in compensatory programs who received on-level instruction in all essential elements were generally found to be more successful. This finding was further validated, since students in compensatory programs who were instructed in fewer essential elements or who enrolled in a greater number of reduced/modified content classes were rated nonsuccessful. These same results applied when the analysis was restricted to students who initially had mastered only 20 percent or fewer objectives on the statewide minimum skills assessment.
4. Smaller Regular Class Size—The size of the regular classroom was significantly related to success. As class size in the regular classroom decreased, the compensatory student was more likely to be successful. The size of the compensatory program classroom, however, was not associated with either success or nonsuccess.
5. Mastery Learning—An instructional program including mastery learning was found to be positively associated with success.
6. Tutoring—Slightly more than half of the students who received tutoring, either before, after, or within the school day were identified successful. However, those students in compensatory programs who provided peer tutoring were even more likely to be rated successful.
7. Teacher Coordination—Of all the teacher-related variables examined, only coordination between the regular and compensatory teacher was related to success.
8. Dual Service—Students who were served in more than one compensatory education program were more likely to be rated nonsuccessful on both the campus and student levels. This may be a result of a lack of coordination between different compensatory programs or the use of conflicting instructional strategies.

1st and 5th Grade Reading and Achievement Test Scores and TEAMS Scores

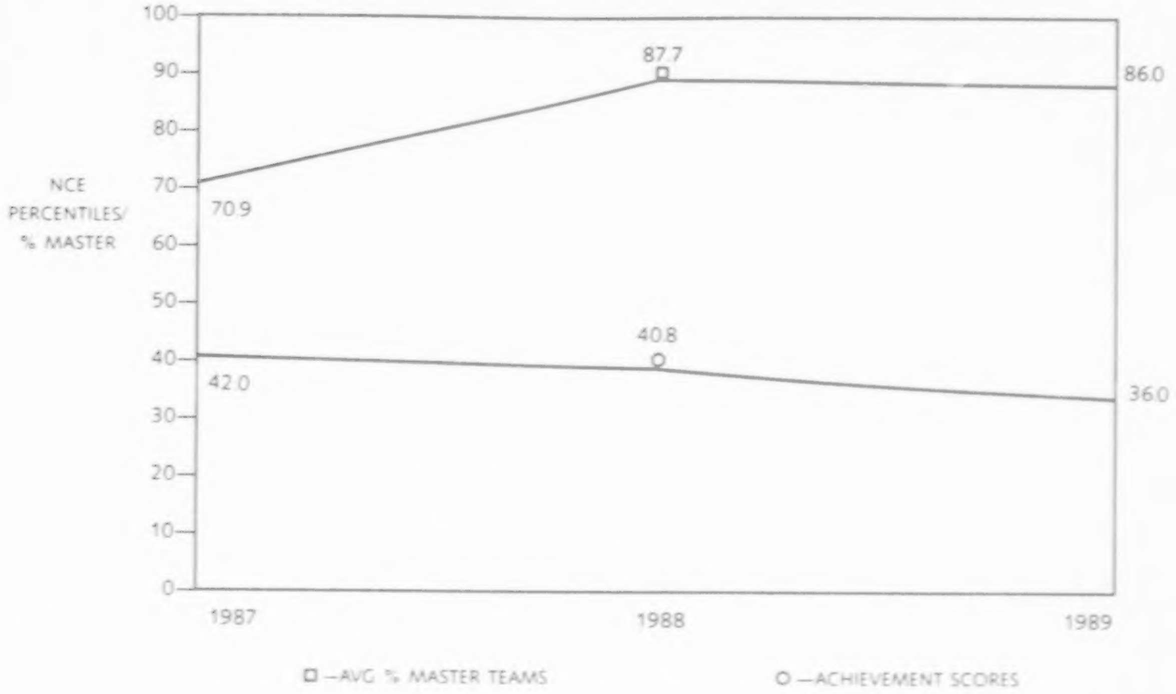
SUMMARY ALL PROGRAMS—1ST GRADE READING

AVERAGE ACHIEVEMENT SCORE AND AVERAGE % MASTER TEAMS



SUMMARY ALL PROGRAMS—5TH GRADE READING

AVERAGE ACHIEVEMENT SCORE AND AVERAGE % MASTER TEAMS



EXAMPLE

Instructional Leadership System: Cycle of Activities and Events

School Woods Elementary

	Date Accomplished	
1. Reviewed the Instructional Leadership System with faculty	January	15
2. Completed interpretation of test data and school information	February	2
3. Determined needs	February	2
4. Selected Building Committee	February	4
5. Established tentative goals	February	9
6. Framed a tentative Plan of Action	February	16
7. Obtained consensus from faculty	February	23
8. Selected representatives for Districtwide meeting	February	23
9. Attended Districtwide goal setting meeting	March	9
10. Finalized goals and plan of action	April	13
11. Reviewed goals and plan with faculty for consensus	April	20
12. Submitted final plan to Central Committee by May 1	April	30
13. Submitted request for staff development and support to Central Committee May 1	April	30
14. Participated in Administrative Leadership Conference	August	2-4
15. Implemented plans at the opening of the school year	August	23-24
16. Implemented process evaluation system	September	20
17. Evaluated progress and implementation process	October	20
18. Attended Districtwide evaluation meeting	November	16
19. Collected product and process data for annual evaluation	January	10
20. Reviewed the annual evaluation with a member of the Central Committee	January	17

EVALUATION

Evaluation is an essential component of the Instructional Leadership System. The complete evaluation design provides information in the following areas:

1. Product Evaluation

Product evaluation determines to what extent the goals were attained. It consists of measurements of student achievement from program implementation to completion.

Instruments used for product evaluation are:

- California Achievement Tests or Stanford
- TEAMS Test
- Pre- and post-tests prepared by teachers
- Final test scores on District tests

2. Process Evaluation

Process evaluation is a continuous evaluation conducted through the year to determine to what extent the planned activities were completed and to what degree they were effective.

The process evaluation is structured into the evaluation section of the Plan of Action and serves as an outline for the evaluation of those activities. The evaluation plan includes activities that demonstrate implementation is in process. Systematic observations, checklists, surveys, and notes that activities were completed satisfactorily are used to evaluate programs.

The principal is responsible for organizing a system whereby activities and programs can be monitored and the results communicated. Regular feedback of progress are motivational factors for students and teachers. The process of systematic evaluation serves as a force within itself to improve instruction and raise the level of student productivity.

3. Instructional Leadership System Evaluation

ILS evaluation is a cooperative effort by the principal and the staff. The principal leads the staff in evaluating the school's participation in the major elements of the Instructional Leadership System. The major elements are listed on the attached instrument in the order they occur on the annual timeline.

The principal will review the evaluation process annually with a member of the Central Committee.

APPENDIX D

Participating Districts' Reactions to the Report

While in draft form, this report was reviewed by staff in each participating district. Attached is each district's written response to the report.

Austin Independent School District
Dr. John Ellis, Superintendent

January 18, 1990

Dr. W. N. Kirby
Commissioner of Education
Texas Education Agency
1701 N. Congress Avenue
Austin, Texas 78701

Dear Dr. Kirby:

Members of our staff have reviewed the Program Evaluation Report for Compensatory Education. I commend your staff in the Division of Program Evaluation for being very thorough in the research to identify successful compensatory education programs and document their efforts in this report.

I applaud the State Board of Education and the Texas Education Agency for conducting research in the area of compensatory education. I urge you to continue your efforts to identify programs that are successful and to share your research with educators throughout the state.

Sincerely,

John Ellis

John Ellis
Superintendent of Schools

cc: Don Compton

Enclosures

6100 Guadalupe Austin, Texas 78752-4495 512/451-8411

January 17, 1990

Mr. Don Compton, Director of Programs
Division of Program Evaluation
Texas Education Agency
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin, TX 78701-1493

Dear Mr. Compton:

After reviewing the draft copy of Success Stories: A Case Study of Compensatory Education Programs in Elementary Schools, I commend you for such a complete representation. Not only does the report reflect the historic development of compensatory education, but it renders the structural basis for program design, instruction, and evaluation.

As a participating school district, a review of the campus settings for program organization was of special interest. Relating research findings with campus practices enables one to gain a broad interpretation of arranged implementation and instructional approaches for success with youngsters at these critical grades.

I commend your thorough efforts in representing a viable program so often misunderstood and misinterpreted in such an accurate and comprehensive manner. This report should engage professionals as well as laymen in gaining understandings of effective compensatory educational practices. We are pleased that our O. A. Fleming Elementary School is part of this presentation.

Sincerely yours,

Patricia M. Shell
Superintendent of Schools

sd

P. O. Drawer Z · Freeport, Texas 77541 · (409) 265-6181

HISD

Hereford Independent School District
136 Avenue F
Hereford, Texas 79045
(806) 364-0606

January 23, 1990

Dr. Don Cumpton
Texas Education Agency
1701 N. Congress
Austin, Texas 78701

Dear Dr. Cumpton:

We have reviewed the Program Evaluation Report on Success Stories: A Case Study of Compensatory Education in Elementary Schools which was developed by your office.

We are honored to be one of the schools chosen to be a part of this study and hope that the things we are doing for boys and girls are deemed useful for other districts' use.

The write-up of our project at Aikman Primary School is very accurate and describes the program as it is being carried out at this campus. This approach has been used for several years in the Hereford ISD and is the most successful one that we have ever used.

Again, thank you for allowing us to be a part of this study.

Sincerely,

Charles W. Greenawalt

Charles W. Greenawalt
Superintendent

CWG/cjh

Marc Williamson
Asst. Superintendent
for Instruction/Personnel

Charles W. Greenawalt
Superintendent of Schools

Richard Souter
Asst. Superintendent
for Business

EDGEWOOD
INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT
San Antonio

5358 W. Commerce St.
San Antonio, Texas 78237-1399
512/433-2361

BOARD OF TRUSTEES
President
Pete Gonzales, Jr.
Vice President
Juan L. Castillo
Secretary
Tina Morales

TRUSTEES
Enrique M. Barrera
David D. Garza
John R. Noriega
Sam Williams, Jr.

January 25, 1990

Mr. Don Compton
Director of Programs
Division of Evaluation
Texas Education Agency
Austin, Texas 78701

Dear Mr. Compton:

Thank you for the draft copy of *Success Stories: A Case Study of Compensatory Education Programs in Elementary Schools* and for the opportunity to provide input.

We are pleased to have Perales Elementary School as a part of this study and pleased with the resulting report.

Mr. Fenley has expanded the program description for Perales Elementary School as requested and it is attached to this letter.

We do feel studies such as this one can be useful as successful programs should be evaluated and the models shared.

Thank you again for your interest and involvement with our district.

Sincerely,

James R. Vasquez

James R. Vasquez
Superintendent of Schools

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
James R. Vasquez

Tyler Independent School District
School Administrative Office
P.O. Box 2035
Tyler, Texas 75710

DR. JACK L. DAVIDSON
Superintendent

January 22, 1990

Mr. Don Compton
Director of Programs
Division of Program Evaluation
Texas Education Agency
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin TX 78701

Dear Mr. Compton:

I would like to recommend the Compensatory Education Report **"Success Stories: A Case Study of Compensatory Education in Elementary Schools,"** as a valuable resource for districts to use in improving local programs. This report is very comprehensive and provides excellent information. The information presented could be used by school districts to prepare for a productive visitation to a successful site. Rarely would you receive this much information during a visit to a campus.

This report is an accurate account of the Chapter I Program on Jones Elementary School campus. I believe the report would be extremely helpful to anyone involved with compensatory education.

Thank you for developing this resource report for educators which accurately describes successful programs. Many ideas presented in the report can be used to improve programs.

Sincerely,

Dr. Jack L. Davidson
Superintendent

ENCLOSURE

1319 West Eighth, Tyler, Texas 75701, 214/531-3500

PETTUS INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

Homer G. Jefferson
Superintendent

HOME OF THE EAGLES

P. O. Box D
Pettus, Texas 78146
(512) 375-2296

January 17, 1990

Don Compton, Director of Programs
Division of Program Evaluation
Texas Education Agency
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin, Texas 78701-1494

Dear Sir:

I have reviewed the Program Evaluation Report - Compensatory Education Final Report, Success Stories: A Case Study of Compensatory Education in Elementary Schools for 1988-89 as drafted by TEA. The success stories of the schools represented in the report were very enlightening.

The progress that Pettus Elementary has made over the past years with the use of the Chapter Programs is very gratifying. I feel it has allowed a number of "students-at-risk" to catch up with their peers, continue their education through the secondary level, and later become productive in their adult lives.

It is my feeling that the report presents a true and correct picture as to what the elementary staff is trying to accomplish with our Chapter Programs. It is modified from time to time to meet the needs of our students.

I would highly recommend this report and its findings to anyone looking for a way to improve the basic education of young students who have fallen behind and need a little help to catch up.

Sincerely,

Homer G. Jefferson

Homer G. Jefferson, Superintendent
PETTUS INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

HGJ:jb

Pettus ISD does not discriminate
on basis of race, color, national origin,
sex, or handicap.

Austin Independent School District

Department of Intergovernmental Relations

January 18, 1990

Don Compton
Director of Programs
Division of Program Evaluation
Texas Education Agency
1701 N. Congress Avenue
Austin, Texas 78701

Dear Don:

We thank you for the opportunity to review the Program Evaluation Report for Compensatory Education. I commend you for being very thorough in your research to identify successful compensatory education programs and document their efforts in this report.

At your request, Ambrosio Melendrez, Jorge Luis Rodriguez and I have reviewed the report to ensure that the data presented are accurate. We have made several corrections on the report and we are also attaching comments to this letter for your consideration before finalizing the report.

We applaud the State Board of Education and the Texas Education Agency for conducting research in the area of compensatory education. I urge you to continue your efforts to identify programs that are successful and to share your research with educators throughout the state.

Sincerely,

Lee Laws
Director

cc: Ambrosio Melendrez
Jorge Luis Rodriguez

5555 North Lamar, Bldg. H Austin, Texas 78751-1001 512/458-1291

KILLEEN INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

P. O. BOX 967, 200 NORTH W. S. YOUNG DRIVE, KILLEEN, TEXAS 76541
817/526–8361

Dr. Charles Patterson
Superintendent

February 7, 1990

Mr. Don Compton, Director of Programs
Texas Education Agency
Division of Program Evaluation
1701 N. Congress Avenue
Austin, TX 78701-1494

Dear Mr. Compton:

This letter is in response to your request for an assessment of the Program Evaluation Report, Compensatory Education, we received recently. After reviewing the document, it appears to have very accurate information and should be very helpful to those involved in the study. In some areas it appears to be unnecessarily lengthy.

Thank you for the report and for including Pershing Park Elementary of our district in your study.

Sincerely,

Dr. Charles Patterson
Superintendent of Schools

CP:rh

COMPLIANCE STATEMENT

TITLE VI, CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964; THE MODIFIED COURT ORDER, CIVIL ACTION 5281, FEDERAL DISTRICT COURT, EASTERN DISTRICT OF TEXAS, TYLER DIVISION

Reviews of local education agencies pertaining to compliance with Title VI Civil Rights Act of 1964 and with specific requirements of the Modified Court Order, Civil Action No. 5281, Federal District Court, Eastern District of Texas, Tyler Division are conducted periodically by staff representatives of the Texas Education Agency. These reviews cover at least the following policies and practices:

(1) acceptance policies on student transfers from other school districts;

(2) operation of school bus routes or runs on a non-segregated basis;

(3) nondiscrimination in extracurricular activities and the use of school facilities;

(4) nondiscriminatory practices in the hiring, assigning, promoting, paying, demoting, reassigning, or dismissing of faculty and staff members who work with children;

(5) enrollment and assignment of students without discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin;

(6) nondiscriminatory practices relating to the use of a student's first language; and

(7) evidence of published procedures for hearing complaints and grievances.

In addition to conducting reviews, the Texas Education Agency staff representatives check complaints of discrimination made by a citizen or citizens residing in a school district where it is alleged discriminatory practices have occurred or are occurring.

Where a violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act is found, the findings are reported to the Office for Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education.

If there is a direct violation of the Court Order in Civil Action No. 5281 that cannot be cleared through negotiation, the sanctions required by the Court Order are applied.

TITLE VII, CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964; EXECUTIVE ORDERS 11246 AND 11375; TITLE IX, 1973 EDUCATION AMENDMENTS; REHABILITATION ACT OF 1973 AS AMENDED; 1974 AMENDMENTS TO THE WAGE-HOUR LAW EXPANDING THE AGE DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT ACT OF 1967; AND VIETNAM ERA VETERANS READJUSTMENT ASSISTANCE ACT OF 1972 AS AMENDED IN 1974.

It is the policy of the Texas Education Agency to comply fully with the nondiscrimination provisions of all federal and state laws and regulations by assuring that no person shall be excluded from consideration for recruitment, selection, appointment, training, promotion, retention, or any other personnel action, or be denied any benefits or participation in any programs or activities which it operates on the grounds of race, religion, color, national origin, sex, handicap, age, or veteran status (except where age, sex, or handicap constitute a bona fide occupational qualification necessary to proper and efficient administration). The Texas Education Agency makes positive efforts to employ and advance in employment all protected groups.

Texas Education Agency
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin, Texas 78701-1491

GEC 543 02

BEST COPY AVAILABLE